The Literary Digest

A WEEKLY COMPENDIUM OF THE CONTEMPORANEOUS THOUGHT OF THE WORLD.

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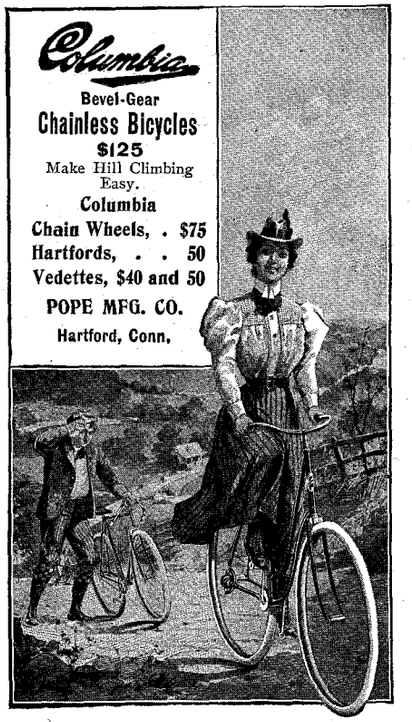

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In the picture the figures of Columbia and Cuba are so combined that they form a great heart, crowned with the Liberty Cap, suggesting that the Age of Force and the Age of Gold are giving way to the greatest of all the ages, the *Age of Heart.*

The time was when to find who was the greatest man the measuring string was placed around the muscle. That was the Age of Hercules. Then the time came when the string was placed around the head, and Shakespeare and Bacon were deemed greatest; but the time is near at hand, if not now here, when to find out who is the greatest the measuring string will be placed, not around the muscle, nor the purse, nor the brain, but around the heart, and he who has the most heart will be king among men.

In the background the starlike flame from the Torch of Liberty assumes the form of a heart whose warm glow attracts the doves, themselves symbolic of love and peace, and repels the creatures of cruelty and darkness—the vampire, the owl, and the flying fox.

The battery of the searchlights from the advancing battleships drives their far-reaching rays behind the black breaker that seems to screen a savage foe, whose cruel shafts have found their mark—the destruction of the *Maine* is suggested by the flesh wound in Columbia's arm, and the deadly cruelty against poor Cuba is manifest.

Gen. T. Estrada Palma, chief representative in the United States of the Cuban Republic, says: "The beautiful picture, 'The Accolade,' faithfully portrays what Columbia's feelings towards Cuba have always been, the love which she has always experienced toward her suffering and downtrodden young sister, a longing affection she never failed to show, notwithstanding adverse circumstances over which she exercised no control. Cuba and her indomitable children will never forget that with Columbia's generous aid they were enabled to break the shackles of Spain's infamous yoke. Through the heroism of the Cubans and the noble courage of the Americans, Cuba has been elevated to the proud dignity of a free and sovereign nation."

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TOPICS OF THE DAY.

DEWEY'S VICTORY IN THE PHILIPPINES.

SIX days after the unparalleled naval victory at Manila (reported in part through the newspapers before the cable from Manila to Hongkong had been cut), the first official messages to the Secretary of the Navy were received from Commodore George Dewey, commanding our Asiatic Squadron. As given to the press they read:

"MANILA, May 1.

"Squadron arrived at Manila at daybreak this morning. Immediately engaged the enemy, and destroyed the following Spanish vessels: *Reina Cristina, Castilla, Don Antonia de Ulloa, Isla de Luzon, Isla de Cuba, General Lezo, Marques del Duero, Correo, Velasco, Isla de Mindanao*, a transport, and water battery at Cavité. The squadron is uninjured, and only a few men are slightly wounded. Only means of telegraphing is to American Consul at Hongkong. I shall communicate with him. DEWEY."

"CAVITÉ, May 4.

"I have taken possession of the naval station at Cavité, Philippine Islands, and destroyed its fortifications. Have destroyed fortifications at the bay entrance, paroling the garrison. I control the bay completely, and can take the city at any time. The squadron in excellent health and spirits. The Spanish loss not fully known, but very heavy. One hundred and fifty killed, including the captain of the *Reina Christina* [this is the reported loss on the *Christina* alone]. I am assisting in protecting the Spanish sick and wounded. Two hundred and fifty sick and wounded in hospital within our lines. Much excitement at Manila. Will protect foreign residents. DEWEY."

Secretary Long cabled back as follows:

"WASHINGTON, D. C., May 7.

"*Dewey, Manila:*

"The President, in the name of the American people, thanks you and your officers and men for your splendid achievement and overwhelming victory. In recognition he has appointed you Acting Rear Admiral and will recommend a vote of thanks to you by Congress as a foundation for further promotion. LONG."

Accounts from special correspondents with the squadron show that Dewey's fleet ran by the outer defenses of Manila harbor under cover of night, appearing in the inner harbor (tho mined) at daybreak to engage the Spanish fleet which lay by the shore batteries for protection. Our ships maneuvered for position shortly after 5 A.M., Spaniards opening fire from batteries and ships at 5:30. Commodore Dewey, on the flag-ship *Olympia*, moved his fleet past the Spanish ships in an elliptical course, thus maintaining constant fire from alternate sides of his vessels. At the end of two hours he withdrew for "breakfast," returning to a closer attack shortly after eleven o'clock. The Spaniards struck colors at 12:30. Their fleet had been literally wiped out, estimates of the killed running as high as 300 and the wounded 600. An official despatch published in Madrid placed the Spanish loss at 618. Not an American was killed and only 8 were injured. The Spaniards fought desperately, but ineffectually. Official reports to Madrid declared that the American fleet had been compelled to repeatedly maneuver, that the Spanish Admiral Montojo transferred his flag from the burning *Reina Christina* to the *Isla de Cuba* during the engagement, and that Spanish sailors destroyed several of their own ships in preference to capture.

Admiral Dewey's fleet comprised six modern fighting vessels: the *Olympia*, first-class protected cruiser, 5,800 tons; *Baltimore*, second rate, 4,600 tons; *Boston*, second rate, 3,189 tons; *Raleigh*, second rate, 3,182 tons; *Concord*, third rate, 1,700 tons; *Petrel*, fourth rate, 890 tons, and a revenue cutter, a collier, and a supply vessel.

The Spanish fleet contained double the number of the United States vessels, altho none of the ships classed with the *Olympia* or *Baltimore*. They had, however, the support of the shore batteries for combined resistance. The *Reina hristina*, flag-ship, is described as a steel cruiser of 3,520 tons; the next largest ship, *Castilla*, 3,346 tons, cruiser with protective deck. The fleet included two steel and three iron cruisers ranging from 1,000 to 1,150 tons, a half-dozen small steel gunboats, and a few torpedo-boats.

Newspaper enthusiasm over details of this victory is mingled with questionings about what we shall do with the Philippine Islands.

Dewey Deserves all Honor.—"Dewey was a subordinate officer in the navy during the Civil War, and he was with Farragut in the memorable battle of Mobile Bay, in 1863. He has repeated the daring feat of Farragut, under even more dangerous circumstances than those the bluff old admiral faced so successfully.

"Dewey sailed into a bay he knew was mined, and attacked the Spanish fleet where it lay under the shelter of land fortifications, the latter armed with Krupp guns. He destroyed the fleet utterly, and silenced the fortifications—and that without sustaining damages enough to injure his fleet's effectiveness.

"The battle of Manila Bay is therefore one of the most daring and successful attacks ever occurring in the naval history of the world. It surpasses Farragut's victory; it goes far beyond one of the proudest of England's long list of naval successes—the battle of Aboukir Bay. Just about one hundred years ago, Lord Nelson, in command of the British fleet in the Mediterranean, entered Aboukir Bay without a pilot—but the waters were not mined. He maneuvered his vessels until he was between the French fleet and the shore, and then he won a complete victory over it. But there were no land batteries to aid the French. It was a naval engagement, pure and simple.

"Dewey's night entrance to Manila Bay, gliding past forts and over mines in the darkness of night, and his engagement of the enemy under the rifled guns of Fort Cavité, thus surpasses Nelson's feat in the bay of Aboukir, which made him the idol of the English people. Dewey deserves all the honors the nation can

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bestow upon him. England has reason to be proud of him, for he is of the sturdy Anglo-Saxon stock which has given the world its greatest fighters."—*The Blade* (*Rep.*), *Toledo, Ohio.*

"He was far enough from home to take the matter in his own hands and fight the battle in his own way. . . . When one considers all the circumstances, the fight as made by Dewey's squadron was courageous to the point of recklessness. That it turned out as it did was due to superior seamanship and marksmanship rather than to superior equipment, for with the protecting guns on the land added to the Spanish fleet, it was equally well equipped."—*The Chronicle* (*Dem.*), *Augusta, Ga.*

"A Startling Mystery."—"The report of Commodore Dewey upon the battle of Manila proves that the victory won there by the American ships was vastly more decisive than it was at first supposed. There was never anything like it in the world. Never did victor inflict in open field more wholesale damage on his enemy and escape with so little hurt himself. The Spanish fleet sunk, one hundred and fifty men killed on the flag-ship alone, not a man lost among the Americans, and but half a dozen wounded!

"The records of engagements between troops carrying civilization's firearms and savages armed with the weapons of barbarism do not afford the parallel of this. It will remain a mystery until a more elaborate report is received.

"How did one fleet, numbering six vessels and mounting a little over 100 guns, from 8-inch, of which there were six, down to 1-pounders, meet another fleet of a dozen ships, backed by forts on shore, and mounting nearly 100 guns, from 6-inch to 1-pounders, and destroy it absolutely, killing and wounding probably not less than 1,000 men?

"No ship in either fleet was classed as armored. Our superiority was neither very great in the caliber of the guns nor sufficiently great in protection to the gunners to admit of that factor being for a moment regarded as the decisive one. Many of our small guns were as devoid of protection as those of the Spaniards. One would suppose that, on the pure theory of probability, blind and unaimed fire from the Spaniards would, to some extent, have equalized the destruction. Yet the result was that the Spaniards were shot as tho they had been formally led up for execution. Even if they had been fast asleep and Dewey's men had stolen in unseen and opened point-blank with every gun at once, how the latter did what they did remains beyond theoretical explanation. It looks as tho the modern war-ship in the hands of experts, highly trained and heavily laden with 'sand,' such as those manning the American navy, is a more infernal instrument than uninformed humanity has imagined.

"Mystified as we are, however, we again send to our Philippine tars and their gallant leader the congratulations of an appreciative and patriotic nation. With the Stars and Stripes flying over Manila the sun never sets on it."—*The Sun* (*Rep.*), *New York.*

Epoch-making Victory.—"It was a victory that crowned with success the work of nearly a generation of navy builders, the presidents and secretaries and the constructors who have pushed forward the labor of preparing our country to fulfil her destiny; the ship-builders who have proved that American mechanics and American material can be relied upon to serve when service is required: the navy's officers and men who have continued in their own persons the traditions of our navy's heroism.

"The epoch such a victory makes is the epoch of peace for this continent. We shall not have hereafter to fight in support of our declaration that on this continent the American will is law. Spain, had she been wise, would not have questioned our pretensions, and we are sure that no other nation will imitate her mistaken policy. Hereafter the rule shall be that so far as this continent is concerned government shall exist by the consent of the governed."—*The Register* (*Dem.*), *Mobile, Ala.*

"The Yankee guns at Manila have accomplished what an age of diplomacy would not have effected. They woke the nations with a start. All humanity has been turned with attention to their instructive reverberations. A few minutes have seen accomplished changes of opinion that centuries of peace would not have effected. These are the beneficent uses of villainous gunpowder. . . . The fight at Manila and its results will go far toward preventing ever again such spectacles as the Armenian massacre and civilized Europe looking on paralyzed and impotent to interfere and to save."—*The Citizen* (*Dem.*), *Brooklyn.*

Our Quality is Now Known to All.—"We knew our quality but Europe did not. Amazing as it may seem to us, Europe's opinion of us was anything but flattering, and logically so. We had not been measured in any way against the military force of modern Europe. Before the phase that modern warfare has taken on we had a tremendous civil war; a war of volunteer troops, fought over a whole continent in a wild country. While it presented deeds of heroic valor, some pitched battles that rank with the great ones of the world and expounded a constancy that reflected vastly to our credit, yet it was in the last generation. Since then the modern conditions of warfare as developed by Count von Moltke have come into being. The modern navy, as indicated by our ironclads in that war, has been built. Meanwhile we have been noted for nothing in the eyes of the world but a phenomenal accretion of substance and a development of character measured by the vulgar millionaires that swarm Europe every season.

"Disliked heartily because of our form of government, our offensive equality, our national lack of reverence, Europe easily and naturally believed what it wanted to believe, that we were a conglomeration of races sunken in vulgar prosperity—'pigs,' the Spanish call us—worshiping only the almighty dollar; without lofty ideals, without the fine temper that comes from lofty ideals. This is no overdrawn picture. It is easy to see that Europe comfortably and conscientiously believed such things as these. Manila was a rude awakening. And let us say that it was a good awakening for us as well as a rude one for Europe. All the unpleasant things that Europe says of us are based on something. It is not possible for a people to acquire such material prosperity as we have acquired without paying the penalty. We have been vulgarized, and we have been corrupted by our prosperity, not to the extent that Europe thinks, but to any extent is too much, and anything that will awaken us to the consequences of such prosperity; that will give us thoroughly to understand that there are other things worth living for and worth dying for; that will appeal to the splendid temper which we know exists beneath all of the outward form and show, beneath the frivolous life that prosperity engenders, will do us a world of good."—*The News* (*Ind.*), *Indianapolis.*

Philippines Ours to Dispose Of.—"The United States have the right either to hold the Philippines for indemnity or to keep them altogether as part of her territory, just as Germany took Alsace-Lorraine in the Franco-Prussian war. We may keep possession of them until hostilities are ended, and then their disposition will be one of the factors in the making of peace. We would, of course, have to respect the vested rights of other nations in the islands, if they have any. These rights would include coaling-stations, liens or mortgages on custom-houses and claims of that nature. Spain can not give to us any more than she owns.

"In regard to the selling or transfer of the islands to another power by the United States, that could not be done until we have a valid title of the islands, which can be obtained only by a treaty of peace with Spain, in which she cedes the islands to us. Otherwise, we would be selling a disputed title, and the country that purchased it would have to reckon with Spain. The law is the

OPENING OF THE FISHING SEASON.

Uncle Sam seems to be making a good catch.—*The Journal, Minneapolis.*

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same among nations in this respect as among private persons. But this is not a war of conquest. We have a legitimate claim against Spain for the expenses of the war, and Spain must pay the costs. When that is done, the United States, I believe, will relinquish all claims to the Philippine Islands and return them to Spain."—*Press Interview with Frederic R. Coudert, late Counsel for the United States in the Bering Sea Commission.*

Entering Career as a World-Power.—"We have become the most productive industrial nation in the world; and because of the cheapness and superior quality of our manufactured and agricultural products the time is near at hand when our foreign commerce will exceed that of any other people. We shall be obliged to afford protection to our shipping on every sea and to our merchants in every region of the earth. To this end our navy will have to be second to none—and, perhaps, superior to that of several malevolent rivals in sea power. We shall need repair depots and coaling-stations conveniently located as bases for naval operations when war shall have closed neutral ports to our ships. If one of the vessels of Commodore Dewey's squadron had been seriously crippled in the fight at Manila it must necessarily have been abandoned. Averse as we may be to territorial accessions beyond the sea, the retention of some part of the Philippine group for the uses and purposes indicated may become inevitable.

"All suggestions in reference to the future of the Philippines must be regarded, however, as having been made tentatively and with many reservations. We should meet problems as they arise—not anticipate them. It is fairly clear, nevertheless, that our war in aid of Cuba has assumed dimensions undreamed of by those who forced the country into the conflict. Our international political relations have become as complicated as are those of Great Britain. Willy nilly we have entered upon our career as a world power."—*The Record (Ind. Dem.), Philadelphia.*

Colonization and Monroe Doctrine.—"The only course that we can pursue in the case of the Philippine Islands is to give to the people of that archipelago the opportunity to establish a government of their own; or, if not that, to leave the Spanish Government in control. It has been said that we should take the islands ourselves and form a colony there, but such a departure from our traditional policy would rend the Monroe doctrine from top to bottom. So long as we keep within the Western hemisphere and absolutely refuse to interfere in affairs in the Eastern hemisphere, we can fairly insist upon preventing the powers of the Old World from exercising any influence over the political destinies of the nations of the New World. But if, departing from this restrictive theory, we become, by colonization, an Old-World power, then by that act we throw the door open to France, Germany, Russia, England, Austria, and Italy, so far as South America and Central America are concerned. We can not race with the hare and course with the hounds, and if we expect to keep the Old-World powers out of the New World, we must, as a New-World power, keep ourselves out of the Old World. To once pass the threshold would involve us in complications the end of which no man can foresee."—*The Herald (Ind.), Boston.*

Difference between Philippines and Porto Rico.—"The Philippine Islands are outside of our sphere of influence and they may very properly be held as a hostage for Spain. International law covers all points in controversy as to the occupation of Manila and as to indemnity. No nation of Europe will dispute the right of the United States to occupy Manila and put the Philippine Islands under military control. It is directly in accordance with European precedent to hold the territory until the war indemnity is paid.

"The case of Porto Rico is different. This island is clearly within the sphere of American influence. When it is captured and occupied no proposition for the return of the island to Spain should be considered. As far as the question of American interests and of liberty for a struggling people are concerned Porto Rico is in the same list as Cuba. . . . To put Porto Rico on a plane with the Philippines, to hold it simply as a hostage for Spain's good conduct, would be to repeat the blunder in the case of San Domingo. Porto Rico must be made independent under the protection of the United States or must be annexed to the United States. This is the logic of the war and the plain common sense of the situation. To leave the island under Spanish rule would mean another Spanish complication and probably in the end another war, similar to the one we are now waging. Spain must get off the hemisphere before we can have any lasting assurance of peace."—*The Inter Ocean (Rep.), Chicago.*

The Main Purpose of the War.—"Much of the discussion respecting the ultimate disposition of the Philippine Islands, assuming that the United States now controls or will soon control them, is necessarily premature. The question is an important one, but the future must decide it. Matters have not advanced sufficiently at this time to enable the forming of an opinion of value. Certainly nobody in authority is offering any expression on the subject except in the nature of speculation.

"The attack on the Philippines, altho our quarrel with Spain is over Cuba, was certainly justifiable. As her weakest spot within our reach they invited our first blow. It did not matter that they were on the other side of the world. Our object being to finish Spain in as short order and as thoroughly as possible, her territory in the Pacific was just as legitimate game for us as is any she controls in the Atlantic. We are introducing no new feature into our program. Our original aim is still our only aim, and that is to drive Spain out of the Western hemisphere. She has been a factor only for evil and discord over on this side, and we are tired of her company.

"The Philippine Islands as a permanent possession would be of far greater value to either Great Britain, or Japan, or Germany, than to the United States. As matters now stand, their value to us, if we can hold them, will lie in the pressure we shall be able to bring to bear on Spain through them in the settlement of the expenses of the war. Spain will have to pay the bills. That is as certain as can be, and the Philippines, if brought under the hammer, would command a large sum.

"Permanent occupancy of the islands by the United States would, it is easily to be seen, be a radical departure from the American policy. They are far beyond what we know as the sphere of American influence, and they would carry us into strange waters. We belong in the Western hemisphere. We announce supremacy here. It is that supremacy which has caused us to speak in the matter of Cuba, and which has caused the great powers to respect the position we have taken toward Cuba.

"But the war is young yet. The problem may grow in difficulty and complexity as time passes, and present some new and unconsidered phases. The proposition to-day is that Spain must get out of this hemisphere and pay the cost of her forcible ejectment. Whatever else happens, that will not be lost sight of. That is still the main American purpose."—*The Star (Ind.), Washington.*

A Unique Discussion.—"In no other country in the world would there be any agitation of the question that is being widely discussed in the United States at present: What shall we do with the Philippine Islands? Any other country, having conquered them, would keep them, as a matter of course, unless it chose to part with them for a valuable consideration. But the United States has no such idea. It has no dreams of conquest, and extensions of territory beyond its own continent are not in its line. Even the proposition for the peaceful annexation of Hawaii finds less favor the longer it is considered. The ownership of this large group of islands, inhabited principally by savages, who could not be assimilated to its population or included in its form of government, would be as foreign to its policy as to its geography. And yet there is a feeling that some compensation should be had for the expense and trouble of capturing the islands, and some kind of government must be found for them, since their inhabitants seem scarcely fitted to govern themselves. If they are established as a separate republic, it will have to be under the guardianship of the United States, and will be virtually a protectorate of this country—something for which our laws make no provision. It will not do to give them back to Spain, and the only alternative seems to be to hand them over to some one of the powers that are eager to possess them. But to which one and on what terms? It is a question full of difficulties, and one that will need wise councils to decide it properly."—*The Ledger (Ind. Rep.), Philadelphia.*

"If Spain will at once withdraw her army from Cuba and leave the islanders to form their own government, the United States would restore the Philippines to Spain. But it looks as if Spain intends to make a protracted war, and in that event there would be no equity impelling the United States to restore any of the Spanish possessions which our army and fleet are so fortunate as to capture."—*The Evening Wisconsin (Rep.), Milwaukee.*

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CAN INTERNATIONAL LAW BE ENFORCED?

IN all the discussion about international law which preceded war between Spain and the United States, the lack of means to enforce assumed international obligations was shown, as has been often pointed out, to be a crucial weakness. Can this weakness be remedied? Prof. Pasquale Fiore, of the University of Naples, thinks there are signs to encourage the belief that the weakness will be ultimately overcome, in view of the history of the Declaration of Paris and the practise and recorded sentiments of nations regarding international arbitration in certain contingencies. He notes (in the *Revue de Droit International*, Brussels, March) that most of the efforts which have been made to prevent war have been founded on the establishment of arbitration as the best possible system of procedure to settle international controversies. Great praise is given to the various governments which have tried to make arbitration a universal rule for settling their controversies. It is recalled that the United States, since 1815, out of sixty cases of effective international arbitration, have been a party in thirty-two, and that Great Britain, during the same period, has participated in twenty arbitrations. Much satisfaction is expressed as to the acts of the Interparliamentary Association, which has held a convention every year since 1889. In response to the suggestions of this association the Senate and House of the United States, in 1890 unanimously passed a resolution asking the President to seize every opportunity to enter into negotiations with other governments to establish an international tribunal. The House of Commons of Great Britain, in the same year, by a great majority, asked the Government to aid in the establishment of such a tribunal. The parliaments of Denmark, Norway, and Switzerland, and the Chamber of Deputies of France and of Italy, have followed this example of the United States and France. All this shows that there is a powerful imperious and general sentiment among civilized peoples in favor of the establishment of some form of juridical sanction of international law.

Still, between an agreement between the various peoples to make arbitration universal, and providing means whereby international law can be enforced, is a long step. The difficulty of taking this step is thus explained by the professor:

"It is a great satisfaction to perceive that there is a general conviction that we ought to substitute the authority of law for the omnipotence of force, and to create institutions capable of assuring respect for international law and of settling differences in cases of arbitrary violation of that law. The only question is to determine the best system and means of putting the conviction alluded to in operation. The divergence on this point is the principal cause why this imperious reform has not been made. The problem is certainly not easy of solution. That problem is to organize a system of procedure which will be complete and efficacious; which will determine the juridical field of the jurisdiction of arbitration, and assure the carrying into effect of the juridical decisions. Moreover, the system must have a juridical organization sufficiently perfect to exclude the necessity of permanent armaments and perils of war. This is a truly complex problem.

"The proposition to establish a permanent tribunal composed of representatives of all the states which would be willing to recognize as obligatory such a tribunal, has had several advocates. Bluntschli, the eminent publicist, was a special champion of such a tribunal. He planned the organization of a great union of states under the form of a confederation, with permanent organs, authorized to settle international law, to provide for the administration of interests common to all, and to render justice.

"It is evident that the organization of an international association, with a central power modeled after the mechanism of the three powers (legislative, judicial, and executive) in each state is easier to conceive of than to put in action. In such an international society would be mingled so many and so grave and complex interests, so many ambitions, prejudices, and different tendencies, that it would be a work of extreme difficulty to put such a scheme into operation.

"So, abandoning the idea of a permanent court, a considerable number of states have expressed their willingness to submit their controversies with other states to a court of arbitration constituted for each case of difference, provided the honor and national dignity be not compromised thereby, and that it be determined, in advance, in what way the tribunal of arbitration shall be formed. Such provisions, of course, tend to impair, more or less, an agreement to arbitrate generally. It is easy for a state to claim that the honor and dignity of the nation are involved in a question proposed to be arbitrated, or to refuse to agree upon arbitrators.

"Still, that an agreement to arbitrate generally is a thing of great value in the opinion of the strongest and most enlightened government is shown by the Congress of Paris of 1856. In this Congress, the governments which united to regulate the consequences of the Crimean war against Russia desired with wise foresight to establish and unify certain rules of maritime law, in order to prevent and avoid many controversies in the future. Therefore they proclaimed a common law relating to the obligations of neutrals and to the rights of neutrals and belligerents during maritime war. They thus recognized the propriety of determining by agreement certain points of international law, and in substance declared that these points were under the joint juridical protection of the parties who proclaimed them. And the same principle was further established in the conference of the powers at London, on June 17, 1871.

"There does not, therefore, seem any difficulty in the way of enlarging and completing the work begun by the Congress of Paris in 1856, and interpreted by the conference of London in 1871. It seems tolerably certain that we shall reach that point, either in the course of evolution or as a consequence of the social revolution which is likely to be the final result of the existing international disorder.

"We do not dare to imagine that all civilized states assembled in a congress could reach the enactment of a collection of laws, which would have the authority and form of an international code. That would be an immense enterprise, but we dare not look so far ahead, because we are convinced that in the things of this world it is wisest to propose an end in proportion to our means, and that the thing which one may reasonably hope to realize is not an absolute ideal, but the best relative ideal, which means that in actual circumstances we must wait in patience, and take the best we can get, and thus shun the risk of getting much less.

"Every one ought to be convinced that we shall reach the result we desire in a longer or shorter time by considering that an armed peace is an obstacle to all progress and to security in every European state.

"From what precedes, it appears to us that we can draw the certain conclusion that, if at present the juridical sanction of international law is lacking outside of armed force, all the modern movement tends to urge the civilized states to find somehow a real and efficacious form of a more rational juridical sanction, and that what has been already accomplished ought to give us all the assurance that, in a future more or less distant, we shall be able to resolve the problem of a juridical sanction of international law."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

PROGRESSIVE INHERITANCE TAX CONSTITUTIONAL.

THE Supreme Court of the United States on April 25 upheld the constitutionality of the Illinois inheritance-tax law, handing down an opinion scarcely second in importance to, if not conflicting with, the decision affirming the unconstitutionality of the income-tax law of 1894. The Illinois law is a radical measure of its kind. Properties passing to direct heirs are exempted in the case of each heir up to $20,000 and taxed 1 per cent. on everything in excess of that amount. Collateral heirs are exempted $2,000 each, and taxed 2 per cent. on all above that sum. When the estate goes outside of blood relatives it is taxed 3 per cent. if its value is between $500 and $10,000; 4 per cent. if it is between $10,000 and $20,000; 5 per cent. if between $20,000 and $50,000, and 6 per cent. if beyond the last-named amount.

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The court decides (Justice Brewer dissenting) that the tax is not on property, but on the privilege of succession, classification for taxing purposes not being a violation of the constitutional requirement of uniformity.

Valuable Victory for the State.—"The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States ends the possibility of effective opposition to the inheritance-tax law of Illinois. Incidentally, the outcome is a justification of the wisdom of the Republican legislature that enacted the law in 1895, and of the Republican legislature of 1897 which, on the suggestion of Governor Tanner, made an appropriation of $60,000 for defense of its constitutionality in the court of last resort. Great credit also is due to the law officers of Cook county, by whom the issue in favor of the State was supported in all the lower courts and the Supreme Court, with the help only of ex-Judge Moran and the attorney-general of the State. Against these were pitted half a dozen of the best lawyers of the nation, with ex-President Harrison at their head. The victory for the state is as brilliant as it is conclusive.

"The immediate effect of the decision will be to enrich the treasury of the State by $1,000,000 from the estates of decedents in Cook county alone. The yearly revenue from enforcement of the law will be not less than $500,000, and it is likely to increase continually. The burden of the law falls upon those who are well able to bear it, for $20,000 is exempt from duty in the case of each lineal heir. . . . . .

"An inheritance tax, says the Supreme Court, is not a tax on property, but on the right of succession to property. Almost infinite issues, which it now were premature to discuss, are opened by the decision. But, confining comment to the issue now uppermost, it is safe to say that it is equitable that they who inherit largely shall be made to contribute of their newly acquired wealth to the State, by the legislature, judiciary, and executive of which it is made possible to inherit in peace what another has been enabled to accumulate in peace."—*The Inter Ocean* (*Rep.*), *Chicago.*

Natural Rights and Privileges.—"Ex-President Harrison was one of the counsel for the protesting heirs before the Supreme Court. William D. Guthrie, of New York, who was prominent in aiding the fight upon the federal income tax of 1894, was another. Both placed emphasis particularly on these discriminations in the rate, declaring them to be subversive of personal and property rights, and General Harrison said it was the work of a communistic legislature. If a legislature could rightfully make such laws, he asked, where was to be found the protection to property from socialistic confiscating attack?

"But the court . . . calmly observes that the Illinois law is based on two principles:

"1. That an inheritance tax is not one of property, but one of succession.

"2. The right to take property by devise or descent is the citation of the law, and not a natural right; a privilege, and therefore the authority which confers it may impose conditions upon it. From these principles it is deduced that the States may tax the privilege, discriminate between relatives, and between these and strangers, and grant exemptions, and are not precluded from this power by the provisions of the respective state constitutions requiring uniformity and equality of taxation.

"Not a natural right, but a privilege conferred by law—such is the nature of the power to pass property at death according to the will of the possessor. This is, of course, the fact, as any one can see after a moment's thought; for, in an unorganized state of society, the property would go to the strongest or to him who was best able to grab it. The state thus performs a great service to heirs of a decedent estate when it undertakes to carry out the will of the former possessor, and is justified in charging compensation for the service.

"But can the rate of charge be varied or graduated without denying to citizens the equal protection of the laws, etc.? Yes, says the court, in giving further attention to this point; for the constitutional provision merely requires that all persons subjected to particular legislation shall be treated alike under like circumstances and conditions:

"If there is unsoundness in the law, it must be in the classification. But it only requires that the law imposing it shall operate alike on all under the same circumstances. The tax is not on money, it is on the right to inherit, and hence a condition of inheritance, and it may be graded according to the value of that inheritance. The condition is not arbitrary, because it is determined by that value; it is not unequal in operation, because it does not deny the same percentage on every dollar. The jurisdiction of the court is fixed by amounts. Congress has classified the rights of suitors to come into United States courts by amounts. Regarding these alone, there is the same inequality that is urged against the classification of the Illinois law. All license laws and all specific taxes have in them the element of inequality; nevertheless, they are universally imposed and their legality has never been questioned. We think the classification of the Illinois law was in the power of the legislature to make, and the decree of the court is affirmed.

"This disposes at once of the great mass of objections and lower-court decisions which have been piling up against the inheritance-tax laws of various States and which threatened to engulf them all. For, in all these tax laws, tho not generally to so great an extent as in the Illinois statute, the element of exemption and classification and variation in rate enters."—*The Republican* (*Ind.*), *Springfield.*

Principles Apply to Income-Tax Laws?—"This decision will insure the validity not only of the Illinois inheritance-tax law, but of similar statutes in other States. And it may be added that the reasoning by which the court arrives at its decision would seem to apply to the provisions of the federal income-tax law of 1894, which exempted all incomes below $4,000. There was the same principle of classification and discrimination in the income-tax law, declared unconstitutional, as in the Illinois inheritance-tax law, just pronounced valid by the same court. Of course, there are other points in the two laws not identical, but so far as classification, discrimination, and variation in rates are concerned, the same features are found in both, and if it is constitutional to apply these principles in an inheritance-tax law, it is hard to see why it is not equally constitutional to apply them in an income-tax law."—*The Free Press* (*Ind.*), *Detroit.*

The Right Kind of a Tax.—"The upholding of the progressive inheritance tax is a matter of importance to the people at large. It represents a form of taxation that must become popular in this country, and will eventually insure the collection of a large revenue from those who are well able to provide it. The inheritor of an estate which he did nothing to create is well equipped to pay a liberal tax on his inheritance, and it is reasonable that the farther removed from the direct line of descent the heavier should be the tax on the collateral heirs, often of no kindred to the testator. Great Britain last year collected $75,000,000 inheritance tax and $86,000,000 income tax, or over $160,000,000 a year from two sources of revenue that the federal Government does not exact a penny from, while piling on millions of taxation on the consumption of the comforts and necessaries of life. This is wrong fundamentally as a matter of principle, and pernicious and dangerous as a matter of policy."—*The Post* (*Dem.*), *Pittsburg.*

"MARCHING WITH GOMEZ."

AT a time when public interest is almost wholly monopolized by questions that center about Cuba, the reader feels a sense of making a real acquisition, as he takes up a book written by a man who has really seen what all of us are thinking about, and who can speak of the men and conditions of the Cuban revolution from actual personal observation.

Mr. Grover Flint went to Cuba when the war was comparatively young, two years ago. Quietly leaving the city of Cardenas on March 25, 1896, he made his way to the insurgent lines, and for four months followed the "lone star flag."

He has not attempted to give us a history of the Cuban war, nor yet a discussion of the Cuban question; his book professes to be a "war correspondent's field note-book" only, but the reader finds much in it to instruct upon topics where all of us are willing to admit our need of more knowledge.

Of the conditions that led to the revolution we get a glimpse in the introduction, which is written by John Fiske, the historian, Mr. Flint's father-in-law. Mr. Fiske says:

"As far as representation at Madrid was concerned, that was soon rendered a nullity by the Peninsulars contriving to get control of the polls and prevent the election of any but their own men. It is said that of the thirty deputies chosen in 1896, all but four were natives of Spain. . . . The power of the captain-general had been absolute. In 1895 an attempt was made to limit it by providing him with a council of thirty members, of whom

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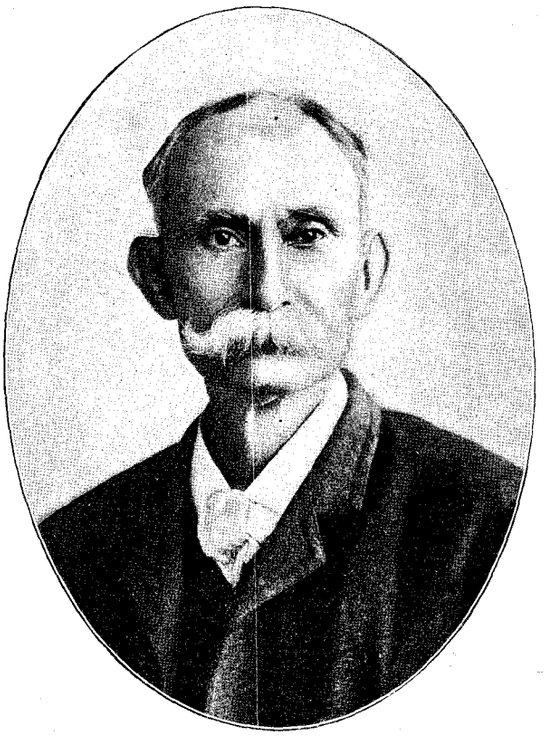
fifteen were to be appointed by the Crown and fifteen were to be elected by the people. Of course the same influence over elections which made representation at Madrid a mere farce would control the choice of councillors. It might safely be assumed that at least ten of the fifteen would be abettors or the pliant tools of the captain-general. But to guard against any possible failure on this point, the captain-general can 'suspend' members who oppose him, until he has suspended fourteen of the thirty. If even then he can not get a majority to uphold him, he is not yet at the end of his resources. Far from it. There is another advisory body, called the 'council of authorities.' Its members are the archbishop of Santiago, the bishop of Havana, the chief justice, the attorney-general, the chief of the finance bureau, the director of local administration, and the commanders of the military and naval forces. Armed with the consent of these advisers, who are pretty certain to be all of them Peninsulars, our captain-general goes back to his refractory council and 'suspends' all that is left of it. . . . After this, it need not surprise us to be told that each province in Cuba has its elected representative assembly, which the autocrat at Havana may suspend at his pleasure; or that the island is abundantly supplied with courts, whose decisions he is at full liberty to overrule. . . . .

"In such a political atmosphere, corruption thrives. A planter's estate is entered upon the assessor's lists as worth $50,000; the collector comes along and demands a tax based upon an assumed value of $70,000; the planter demurs, but presently thinks it prudent to compromise upon a basis of $60,000. No change is made in the public lists, but the collector slips into his own pocket the tax upon $10,000, and goes on his way rejoicing. . . . And this is a fair specimen of what goes on throughout all departments of administration."



MAXIMO GOMEZ,
Commander-in-Chief of the Cuban Insurgent Forces.

Mr. Flint adds to our knowledge of these conditions in incidental passages like the following:

"Before the revolution the Guardia Civil, a select and infallible corps of Spanish constabulary, had a sort of absolute power over the timid people. Their acts were inscrutable. If a civil guard shot or stabbed a peasant in a tavern row, it was because the culprit was 'dangerous and disorderly.' When the civil guards arrested a man, the chances were that he would be shot on the road 'while attempting a violent escape.'"

The style of warfare that Spain has carried on on the island, with which we are already fairly familiar, finds passing reference in such passages as these:

"They entered the house of our kind friends, sacked it, and cut the old man down with machetes. They killed an old negro servant and two mulatto farm hands, and left their bodies by the road unburied. The daughter was in the room when they killed her father, and she tried to rush between them and the old man. They cut her about the right arm, which she raised before her face, and wounded her with thrusts of bayonets. The wet-nurse ran to the door and held up the little baby before her, begging for mercy. A soldier, standing outside, put his rifle to the infant's head, and shot the poor little thing dead. The daughter refused to be cared for by a Spanish surgeon, but they put her in a shed near by, for they had fired the house, and the regimental surgeon ordered quicklime put on her wounds. She died from shock and pain."

Of another occasion he writes:

"An indiscriminate slaughter of the plantation hands and their families was now begun. Men, women, and small children were dragged from their homes and cut down in the usual brutal manner. The *ingenio* and all the surrounding buildings, the storehouses, and the cottages of the plantation negroes, were set on fire, and the bodies of the victims, dead and dying, were thrown among the flames."

This latter story Mr. Flint illustrates with the picture which we reproduce at the bottom of this page.

Of these atrocities the author says: "You hear such stories all over the island—I believe they are all true."

Of the make-up of the Cuban army we learn from Mr. Flint:

"Half of the enlisted men as you saw them together were negroes, with here and there a Chinaman. . . . The officers were of all classes—planters or planters' sons, professional men and peasants of the more intelligent order, with a trifling percentage of negroes and mulattoes. The prevailing tone of these forces was distinctly aristocratic; in fact, they were just such troops as Georgia and the Carolinas would have sent to the field early in this century."

This was in General Lacret's army in Matanzas province.

Of the effectiveness of Spanish operations in the field there are hints like this:

"The infantry squirmed itself into a square, the last stragglers of the marching line closing up at a jog trot. There was a tremor in the two guerilla troops, as if 'gathering' for the order, 'Draw sabre! Forward!' but they did not charge. It was only a swiftly executed 'twos left, column left,' at a trot, that brought them within and behind the halted infantry ranks. There was a white flutter of a hundred legs as the guerrilleros swung from their saddles, and stood to horse in the very center of a solid square—the most magnificent target conceivable—one that would make an American marksman's trigger finger quiver up to his elbow. . . . A sparkle of moving steel ran along the bluish-gray line, then the line wavered in a thin mist of exploding smokeless powder, and a crash came like the swift tearing of a giant strip of carpet. Another crash! and another! Five distinct crashes; and the five cartridges that each Spanish rifle carried in its magazine were exploded. . . . Bullets sped by—every near one with a slight hissing sound as when an insect darts past you. Sometimes they would turn blades of grass, or strike in the ground

Charred remains of at least seven victims of the Oriente massacre as I saw them under the driving wheel of the Sugar Mill, on May 6th 1896.
Grover Flint

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with a sharp snap, like the report of an air-gun. This was all that told that we were under the fire of several hundred European regulars."

Again in his account of the battle of Saratoga he says:

"The mangling of a horse and the jolting of a negro were the sole results of the labor of dragging two heavy field-pieces all the way from Puerto Principe. . . . According to Castellano's own statements, he expended 50,000 rounds of rifle ammunition. This allows about 4,545 bullets to kill one insurgent."

Of the results of the fire of the poorly armed Cubans, he tells us that at the same battle of Saratoga the Spaniards buried sixty killed, and carried away two hundred wounded.

Of General Gomez, the man whose courage and fidelity have made Cuban freedom a nearly accomplished fact, Mr. Flint gives us the following description:

"He is a gray, little man. His clothes do not fit well, and, perhaps, if you saw it in a photograph, his figure might seem old and ordinary. But the moment he turns his keen eyes upon you, they strike like a blow from the shoulder. You feel the will, the fearlessness, and the experience of men that is in those eyes, and their owner becomes a giant before you. He is a farmer by birth, the son of a farmer, with an Anglo-Saxon tenacity of purpose, and a sense of honor as clean and true as the blade of his little Santo Domingo machete."

Another interesting glimpse of the character of Gomez is given in the story that Mr. Flint tells of another newspaper correspondent, who, feeling that Gomez was endangering the success of the cause by a bitter spirit of criticism toward his officers, wrote a very frank statement, in the form of a communication to his paper, and gave it to the interpreter to read to Gomez:

"He listened with every muscle taut while the interpreter hesitated, mouthed, and stammered over the closing lines. There was a moment of silence; then Gomez rose. He went to where Scovel still sat, put one arm over his shoulder, and patted him, while moisture welled under his spectacles, and one tear slid down his furrowed cheek to the white mustache below.

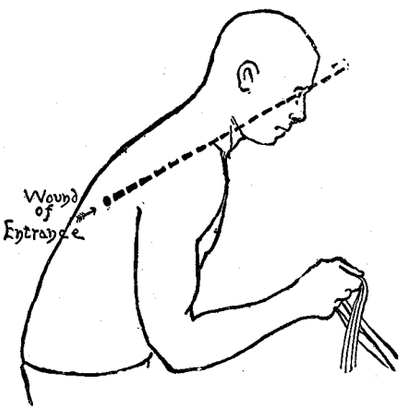
"Next morning, before marching, Gomez ordered the assembly blown, and as publicly as he had reprimanded others he apologized to his officers in the presence of all the forces."

Of the strict discipline of Gomez's army two sentences are indicative: "The rum and brandy was poured out on the ground, where it settled into the dry soil, leaving a rich aroma." . . . "He had a pack of cards, and soldiers of the republic are forbidden to play at cards or have them in their possession."

The spirit that animates the administration of law in the army is shown in a speech made by Gomez at an execution:

"'Soldiers, before you a man, Manoel Gonzales, is brought, tried, and condemned by court-martial, for breaking the laws of our commonwealth. He was guilty, and, having held a grade in our army, he was a dishonor to all of you who offer your lives and labors for the fatherland. I have sentenced him to be shot. By the execution of such as he we uphold our honor, and by the death of every rascal we secure peace to our nation when she is free. Long live free Cuba!'"

In a final chapter of the appendix the effect of the bullet of the modern rifle as represented by the Spanish Mauser is discussed, and the conclusion arrived at that "before the modern bullets can be relied upon to kill or disable, a further change must be made in their construction." The bullet has no "stopping" power, and even mortally wounded men ride on and continue the fight, and men with wounds that in other wars would have required long hospital treatment report for duty with one dressing. Shots through the large bones, *even through the joints*, readily heal and do not disable. Men are frequently shot through the body, and even through the head, and recover. This is the more remarkable in view of the lack of surgical resources among the revolutionists. The diagram which we reproduce illustrates a case which Mr. Flint describes as follows:



A case of perfect recovery.

"The bullet passed (in medical parlance) through the upper portion of the scapula on the right side, through the superficial neck muscles, beneath the angle of the jaw, and made its exit through the orbital cavity, carrying with it a portion of the right eye. On his back this man bore a tiny white cicatrix, less noticeable than a vaccination mark. Barring the loss of his eye, he offered no other trace of the wound than a deep scarified furrow at the base of his eyebrow, where the Mauser had made its exit."

Mr. Flint visited the headquarters of the Cuban republican government, of whose existence so much doubt has been entertained, and describes its workings, and, as well, the courts, the schools, and the factories for military supplies that the Cubans maintain in those parts of the island under their control.

"A DECADE OF FEDERAL RAILWAY REGULATION."

THE history of the Interstate Commerce Commission, since its establishment in 1887, is the subject of an article of permanent value by Henry C. Adams, the statistician of the commission, in the April *Atlantic*. He maintains that, altho the purposes for which the commission was created have not been realized, it has rendered a great deal of service in the direction of solving the great railway problem in this country.

Why is there any railway problem? he asks; why is the business of transportation superior to the satisfactory control of competition? He answers:

"The railway industry is an extensive, and not an intensive industry. It conforms to the law of 'increasing' returns rather than to the law of 'constant' or of 'diminishing' returns. This being the case, ability to perform a unit of service cheaply depends more upon the quantity of business transacted than upon attention to minute details. Another way of saying the same thing is, that the expenses incident to the operations of a railway do not increase in proportion to the increase in the volume of traffic. As an industrial fact, this does not pertain to the business of the manufacturer, the merchant, or the farmer, but is peculiar to the business of transportation; and it is adequate, when properly understood, to explain why all advanced peoples, without regard to the form of government they may have adopted or the social theories they may entertain, have surrounded the administration of railways with peculiar legal restrictions. The necessity of some sort of government control lies in the nature of the business itself."

The different States sought to control the railway business by state commissions, and the Supreme Court, in 1886, expressly limited the jurisdiction of States to local or infra-state traffic. This decision overruled the state courts which had supported the State in their efforts to regulate through traffic. Hence the necessity arose for a federal commission. The chief purpose of its establishment was to guard against invidious discrimination in the administration of railway property, such public control being essential to the permanence of society, according to Mr. Adams. The latter dictum is being vigorously combated by railroad interests to-day, but Mr. Adams supports his position by showing what discrimination means:

"Three classes of discrimination are specially mentioned as

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under the condemnation of the law: these are, discrimination between persons, discrimination between carriers, and discrimination between places. It has been said that discriminations of the sort referred to, falling under the heading of an unjust price, are misdemeanors at common law, and, therefore, that no necessity existed for special legislation. It is not designed to discuss this question, but rather to call attention to the fact that common-law methods of procedure are not adequate to secure for a shipper or a community suffering under an invidious discrimination in the matter of rates that speedy relief essential to the preservation of an established business. Suppose, for example, that one cattle-dealer in Chicago is selected by a pool of railways to control the shipment of meats from Chicago to the seaboard, and that, in order to secure him this control, he receives a rate 10 per cent. less than the rates charged other dealers; it is evident that the favored shipper will quickly destroy the business of other shippers by bidding more for cattle than they can afford to bid. Even if it be true that the discrimination is not approved by common law, what remedy has the small shipper that is speedy enough in its action to rescue the business which he observes to be slipping from him? He has no remedy, and for this reason it is essential that discriminations of the sort referred to should be made statutory misdemeanors, and that some special method of procedure, more rapid in its operations than an ordinary court, should be established to cause the railways to desist from their wrong-doings.

"In this line of reasoning there is presented the defense not only of a formal law by which certain acts common to railway management are declared to be 'unlawful,' but of the establishment of a special bureau or tribunal whose duty it shall be to cause all unlawful discrimination speedily to cease. Such is the aim and spirit of the act to regulate commerce; and in so far as it has failed to grant relief to commerce and industry from invidious discriminations in railway charges, it has fallen short of the high hopes that were enterained when the act was passed."

The commission has chiefly relied on the policy of sitting as a tribunal to hear complaints, in preference to instituting investigations on its own account. Both policies have been tried, but five men with limited money at their disposal could hardly be expected efficiently to supervise a business employing eight or nine hundred thousand men, not counting shippers. And in view of the fact that the commercial and social principles which govern the business of transportation by rail are as yet undeveloped, it appears to have been wise to offer to adjudicate cases of discrimination and unjust rates which shippers might bring before it, in order to develop from a large variety of cases some authoritative principles. Mr. Adams thinks that "if the courts had been willing to grant the law the interpretation that Congress assumed for it, when it was passed, the railway problem would by this time have approached more nearly its final solution."

Indeed, the results obtained in the way of formal opinions on cases brought before it for trial give ample testimony to the usefulness of the law, in Mr. Adams's opinion. They have occasioned a more marked movement toward uniformity in railway administration in the last ten years than has ever been known in America. "Out of the opinions expressed upon cases, there has begun to develop a system of authoritative rules and established interpretations which, sooner or later, will come to be recognized as a body of administrative law for inland transportation."

Of the principles evolved in these decisions on points numbering between eight and nine hundred, during the ten years of the commission's existence, Mr. Adams enumerates the following:

"It has been decided that a just schedule of rates will not tend to destroy the natural advantages for the production and sale of goods possessed by localities; but in judging of local advantages, care must be taken not to confound those that are artificial with those that are natural.

"Not only must a just schedule of rates rest on a just base, but the relative rates on competitive articles must be such as not to disturb the natural order of competition.

"A just schedule of rates will conform to the competitive equities that exist between goods shipped at different stages in the process of their manufacture.

"All shippers should have at their disposal equal facilities of transportation; and when the same commodity is transported by two or more different modes of carriage, the charge should be uniform for the unit of commodity.

"'Group rates,' by which a given commodity produced at different points within a prescribed territory is rated as tho shipped from a single point, do not constitute a discrimination repugnant to the law; but this opinion is limited to the cases presented, and is not set forth as a general principle.

"A rate on one commodity in a class, or on one class of commodities, can not be justly depressed so as to become a burden on the transportation of other commodities or classes of commodities.

"The law does not impose upon the carrier the duty of providing such a rate that goods may be sold at a profit to their producers.

"The car-load, and not the train-load, is the proper transportation unit, but higher charges may be made for goods in less than car-load lots; with this exception, the decisions of the commission have been consistently against the application of the 'wholesale' principle in the adjustment of railway charges.

"Many other principles have been arrived at through the opinions rendered by the commission, bearing upon the question of justifiable discrimination, upon the classification of freight, upon the relation that exists between the employees of one corporation and the management of another, upon the responsibilities of carriers to those who purchase tickets, and upon under-billing, through-billing, the acceptance of foreign freight, and similar questions of an administrative and legal nature; but a sufficient number have been presented to show how the railway problem is in process of solution in the United States, and to indicate the important work that is being accomplished by the Interstate Commerce Commission."

Since the act to regulate commerce can never be effectively administered on the lines of criminal procedure, the problem has been to make it self-executory. In order to accomplish this end the commission must have access to authoritative evidence. Consequently the development of a division of statistics and accounts has been regarded as the chief necessary groundwork. This requires a uniform system of accounts for the railways themselves, and Mr. Adams shows that gratifying success in this line has been attained by the cooperation of federal and state commissioners and accounting officers' associations.

The Interstate Commerce Commission has occupied a peculiar position in our system of government, being clothed with semi-judicial powers. Congress seems to have intended to make the commission's effectiveness depend upon the cooperation of the courts. "Had it been possible," says Mr. Adams, "for the courts to accept the spirit of the act and to render their assistance heartily and without reserve, there is reason to believe that the pernicious discrimination in railway service and the unjust charges for transportation would now be in large measure things of the past. As it is, the most significant chapter in the history of the commission pertains to its persistent endeavors to work out some *modus vivendi* without disturbing the dignity of the judiciary."

In appraising the value of the Interstate Commerce Commission, Mr. Adams refers to three familiar decisions of the courts which have limited its powers. In 1892, in the Counselman case, it was decided that a witness need not testify before the commission should his testimony be of such sort as to incriminate himself. Congress, in 1893, made such refractoriness inexcusable, but provided that the witness should not be prosecuted on account of his testimony—an enactment of uncertain value until the Supreme Court decided it to be constitutional in 1896. Thus for six years out of ten the act was confined, for all practical purposes, to voluntary testimony. The Kentucky and Indiana bridge case lays down the rule that courts may be appealed to for judgment on a whole case, instead of merely reviewing a case passed upon by the commission as final, except so far as points of law may be concerned. This makes the courts and not the commis-

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sion the final authority on matters of fact where transportation principles are concerned, and shippers will not seek relief from unjust carriers through a commission lacking clearly defined power. In the Social Circle case, denial is made of the right of the commission to prescribe a rate that it believes to be reasonable under conditions presented, and the entire subject of railway regulation is thrown on a new footing.

Mr. Adams concludes that "the record of the Interstate Commerce Commission during the past ten years, as it bears upon the theory of public control over monopolistic industries through the agency of commissions, can not be accepted as in any sense final":

"It may ultimately prove to be the case, as Ulrich declares, that there is no compromise between public ownership and management on the one hand and private ownership and management on the other; but one has no right to quote the ten years' experience of the Interstate Commerce Commission in support of such a declaration. This is true because the law itself scarcely proceeded beyond the limit of suggesting certain principles and indicating certain processes, and Congress has not, by the amendments passed since 1887, shown much solicitude respecting the efficiency of the act. It is true, also, because the courts have thought it necessary to deny certain authorities claimed by the commission, and again Congress has not shown itself jealous for the dignity of the administrative body which it created. And finally, it is true because the duty of administering the act was imposed upon the commission without adequate provision in the way of administrative machinery, and ten years is too short a time to create that machinery, when every step is to be contested by all the processes known to corporation lawyers. For the public the case stands where it stood ten years ago. Now, as then, it is necessary to decide on the basis of theory, and in the light of political, social, and industrial consideration, rather than on the basis of a satisfactory test, whether the railways shall be controlled by the Government without being owned, or controlled through governmental ownership. The danger is that the country will drift into an answer of this question without an appreciation of its tremendous significance."

TOPICS IN BRIEF.

SET 'em up on the other alley, señor.—*The News, Detroit.*

THERE seems to be a growing disposition to remember the *Maine.*—*The World-Herald, Omaha.*

IN the mean time a very valuable coaling-station is going to waste in the latitude of the Sandwich Islands.—*The Tribune, Detroit.*

"REMEMBER Sherman" would not be an inappropriate Ohio war-cry in the next election.—*The Post-Dispatch, St. Louis.*

AMERICA has never been whipped. Spain is requested to paste this on the funnels of her battle-ships.—*The Times, Los Angeles.*

IF the President had called for 125,000 colonels, it wouldn't have taken a day to fill the quota.—*The News, Detroit.*

SOMEHOW the flag seems to mean more than it did when Mark Hanna made his celebrated grand-stand play with it.—*The Tribune, Detroit.*

NO doubt, Secretary Day appreciates at its proper value the important work Assistant Secretary Day did to clear the way for him.—*The Ledger, Philadelphia.*

IT is just a little over 400 years ago since the Spanish flag appeared in the Western hemisphere. What a future Spain has behind it!—*The Press, Philadelphia.*

UP to date Mark Hanna's responsibility for the Shawneetown flood and the California earthquakes has not been established, but the investigation is not yet ended.—*The Republic, St. Louis.*

A GIFTED young lady asks, "Why is Uncle Sam's latest achievement like a woman's throwing a stone?" You give it up, of course, and then she says, "Because he aimed at Cuba, in the West, and hit the Philippines, in the East."—*The Ledger, Philadelphia.*

"WHY is it, I wonder," mused Sagasta, "that those Americans are such dead shots?" "It must be their practise at the national game," suggested Gullon. "I've heard considerable about their putting the ball right over the plate."—*The North American, Philadelphia.*

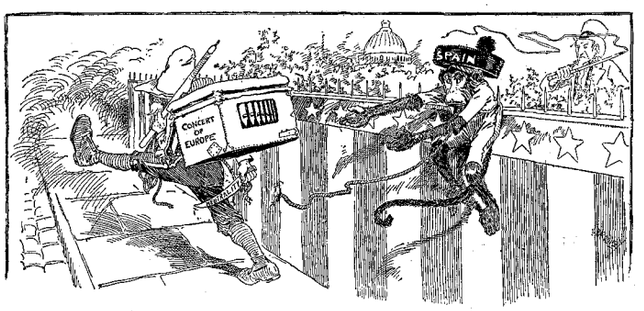
A VERY slight tax on talk would produce all the revenue the Government could possibly need.—*The News, Detroit.*

THE Spanish battle-cry is "To-morrow!" and the American slogan is "To-Morro!"—*The Times-Herald, Chicago.*

A SOCIAL EVENT.

"DO you intend to go to the war?" inquired one member of a swell Metropolitan regiment.

"Will our set be there?" responded the other. "To tell you the truth, I just got into town and didn't know that invitations were out. When is it to be?"—*The Star, Washington.*



ABANDONED.—*The Inter Ocean, Chicago.*

A THEORY.

Perhaps reincarnationists
Can make the matter plain;
Is it Don Ananias who
Is sending news to Spain?

—*The Star, Washington.*

SENATOR QUAY does not care who makes the speeches so long as he can control the primaries.—*The News, Indianapolis.*

"LORD, Lord!" exclaimed the old lady. "It does look like they're agwine ter have war! How I wish all my boys wuz in Congress!"

"In Congress?"

"Yes; kaze then they'd vote fer war an' stay out o' it."—*The Constitution, Atlanta.*

DID you obseRve that ciphEr in the President's ultiMatum? WEll, it was there, altho you May not have seen it, and it doesn't take a Donnelly with his Cryptogram to Bring it to light. Somehow or othEr it seems, too, to possess a good deal moRe significance Than any of the farfetcHed efforts to provE Bacon the author of the works that bear Shakespeare's naMe. It is is probAbly only necessary to suggest Its presence iN that significant document to set pEople everywhere to looking for it.—*The Journal, Minneapolis.*

ADIOS!

Land of garlic and tortillas,
Land of xebecs and mantillas,
Land of mules and smuggled bitters,
Land of raisins and of fritters,
Land of Pedro and of Sancho,
Land of Weyler and of Blanco,
Land of bull-fights and pesetas,
Land of dusky señoritas,
Land of manners stiff and haughty,
Land of Isabella naughty,
Land of Bobadil and Hamil,
Don't you hear your Uncle Sam'l?
"Git!"

—*The Plaindealer, Cleveland.*

—*The Herald, New York.*

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LETTERS AND ART.

COLONEL HIGGINSON'S RETROSPECT.

THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON'S latest volume ("Cheerful Yesterdays") is the autobiography of an essayist. The unessential personal details usual in a story of one's own life are for the most part wanting here, and the author uses his own career chiefly as a thread on which to string a series of essays on important public events, personages, and conditions with which he has been brought into close contact. The reminiscences include the Cambridge of fifty years ago (Colonel Higginson was born there in 1823 and graduated at the university at the age of eighteen), the Transcendental movement, the Abolition crusade, the strife in Kansas in *ante-bellum* days, the Civil War, and literary conditions in Paris and London twenty years ago. Some of these reminiscences have already been reproduced in our columns from the pages of *The Atlantic Monthly*, in which they have appeared serially. The book, however, is well worth a second gleaning.

Colonel Higginson studied theology at the Harvard Divinity School, and began his professional career as preacher for the First Religious Society at Newburyport, ostensibly of the Unitarian faith, but bearing no denominational name. Radicalism both in religion and government were becoming more and more widely diffused, and the abolition movement was soon forced to the foreground. "It was predominantly a people's movement," he writes, "based on the simplest human instincts, and far stronger for a time in the factories and shoe-shops than in the pulpits or colleges." Colonel Higginson zealously espoused this cause, being strengthened therein by his intercourse with Whittier. When Shadrach, an escaped slave, was arrested under the Fugitive Slave law, February 15, 1851, forceful resistance was determined on, and an anti-slavery mob secured his escape from the court-house during his trial. In this and subsequent similar affairs Colonel Higginson was always a leader and a man of action. For his connection with the last of these—the Burns affair, May 26, 1854—he was arrested, but was never brought to trial.

In the interest of free-state immigration, Higginson went to Kansas in the fall of 1856. Jim Lane, then "major-general commanding the free-state forces of Kansas," gave him a commission as a member of his staff, with the rank of brigadier-general. He probably saw John Brown, who was then in hiding and under an alias, but it was not until a year after his return home (which he reached toward the end of 1856) that he came to know the aggressive abolitionist.

He gives an interesting account of Brown's character and his plan in assaulting Harper's Ferry, which has already been reproduced in our columns (see LITERARY DIGEST, May 22, 1897). At the outbreak of the Civil War the colonel became active in recruiting volunteers. In the second year of the war he received a request from Brig.-Gen. Rufus Saxton, military commander of the Department of the South, to take command of a regiment of freed slaves recruited from the refugees on the Sea Islands of South Carolina. "It took my breath away," writes Colonel Higginson, "and fulfilled the dream of a life-time." He immediately went South and accepted the colonelcy:

"There was a happiness in dealing with an eminently trustful and affectionate race, and seeing the tonic effect of camp discipline upon the blacks. In this respect there was an obvious difference between them and the whites. Few white soldiers enjoyed serving in the ranks, for itself; they accepted it for the sake of their country, or because others did, or from the hope of promotion; but there was nevertheless a secret feeling in most minds that it was a step down; no person of democratic rearing really enjoys being under the orders of those who have hitherto been his equals. The negroes, on the other hand, who had been ordered about all their lives, felt it a step upward to be in uniform, to have rights as well as duties; their ready imitativeness and love of rhythm made the drill and manual exercises easy for them; and they rejoiced in the dignity of guard and outpost duty, which they did to perfection. It is, however, a great mistake to suppose that slavery, as such, was altogether a good preparation for military life; and the officers who copied the methods of plantation overseers proved failures."

Seriously wounded, the author came North on furlough in 1863; returning to the front, his health failed and he was compelled to resign from service in the autumn of 1864. His subsequent activities in literature, in politics, and on the lecture platform are interestingly depicted. He closes with an epilogue containing his political and social creed:

"It must be borne in mind that one who has habitually occupied the attitude of a reformer must inevitably have some satisfaction, at the latter end of life, which those who are conservative by temperament can hardly share. To the latter, things commonly seem to be changing for the worse, and this habit of mind must be a dreary companion as the years advance. The reformer, on the other hand, sees so much already accomplished, in the direction of his desires, that he can await in some security the fulfilment of the rest. Personally I should like to live to see international arbitration secured, civil-service reform completed, free trade established; to find the legal and educational rights of the two sexes equalized; to know that all cities are as honestly governed as that in which I dwell; to see natural monopolies owned by the public, not in private hands; to see drunkenness extirpated; to live under absolute as well as nominal religious freedom; to perceive American literature to be thoroughly emancipated from that habit of colonial deference which still hampers it. Yet it is something to believe it possible that, after the progress already made on the whole in these several directions, some future generation may see the fulfilment of what remains."

Trials of Early American Editors.—The present-day editor, so large a portion of whose time is consumed in rejecting material offered to him, much of it gratis, will read with amazement, perhaps not unmixed with envy, the description of the periodical literature of our country from 1815 to 1833 given by Dr. William B. Cairns, of the University of Wisconsin, in a bulletin recently issued by that institution. Speaking of the magazines "which aimed to educate the masses," Dr. Cairns says:

"Hope must have sprung eternal in the breasts of the editors and publishers of these magazines, or they would have foreseen the failure that almost surely awaited them. A few ventures, like *The North American Review*, met a need, and finally established themselves on firm footing. Some, especially among the religious magazines, were organs of denominations or societies, and so were assured of contributors and subscribers. The great majority, however, came into existence as the result of misguided enthusiasm, and resulted in literary and financial bankruptcy. Every one was ready to admit that a literary magazine was a good thing, but few had the ability, and fewer the time, to furnish readable articles. 'We take no pride in writing it all ourselves,' says one struggling editor [*Illinois Monthly Magazine*], a few months after his prospectus has dwelt on the wide scope of his magazine, and the long list of able contributors whose aid was assured. [Dr. Cairns quotes as follows from this prospectus: 'We wish to collect the scattered rays of intelligence which are dispersed over our country, and by concentrating those beams which are now glimmering singly and feebly, to produce a steady brilliance which may illumine the land.'] His experience was that of the majority. Calls for contributions were so frequent that the ingenuity of the editor was taxed to devise new wordings. Gentlemen whose early opportunities had been neglected were urged to send in their productions with the assurance that details of spelling and grammar would be attended to in the office. Still the contributions did not come. One man [Tudor] wrote all the first number of *The North American Review* except one poem. Of course this state of things did not continue long in case of *The North American*, and the editor soon had the luxury of being able to decline contributions."

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A GREAT SPANISH DRAMATIST.

THE recent production in this city, under the management of the Criterion Independent Theater, of the remarkable play, "The Great Galeoto," by José Echegaray, has served to direct attention to the work of that brilliant Spanish dramatist, hitherto practically unknown in this country. That so great a play should have waited more than fifteen years for a hearing by a people professing an appreciation of the highest forms of dramatic art would seem to be convincing proof of the need for such an or-

JOSÉ ECHEGARAY.
From "Mariana." Reproduced by courtesy of Roberts Brothers, Boston.

ganization as the Independent Theater, to present notable plays neglected by the theatrical managers who are forced to consult first the commercial prospects of a play.

As interpreted by a very competent cast, including John Blair, Eben Plympton, and Miss Maude Banks, "The Great Galeoto" made a most favorable impression on the critics and the limited section of the public who witnessed the play at its seven performances at the Berkeley Lyceum. Had it been produced at one of the prominent theaters, many think it would undoubtedly have run for an entire season, for, apart from its high literary qualities, the play is powerful in its character representation and full of intense human interest.

The play thus introduced to an American audience is one of more than fifty written during the last twenty-five years by José Echegaray, one of the foremost dramatists of Europe. In a sketch of his life and work published as an introduction to a translation of his two plays—"The Great Galeoto," and "Folly or Saintliness"—by Hannah Lynch, we are told that he was born in Madrid in 1832, and, after graduating from the university of that city, applied himself to the exact sciences and was for a time professor of the School of Engineers. After an exciting political career, in the course of which he was at times a revolutionist and again a Cabinet Minister, he went to Paris, where, in 1873, he wrote his first play. On his return to Spain in 1874 he was again made a member of the Cabinet, but soon retired from political life and has since devoted his time to writing for the theater.

Among his most notable plays are "In the Bosom of Death," a romantic drama of the thirteenth century; "The Son of Don Juan," a problem play with strong suggestions of Ibsen's "Ghosts"; and "The Great Galeoto," an exposition of the tragedy of life wrought by the subtle influence of suspicion and gossip. In the prologue to the latter play the author thus expresses his purpose to show how tremendous results for evil lie in the merest trifles—a glance, a shrug of the shoulders, a careless word:

"*Ernest:* Look! Each individual of this entire mass, each head of this monster of a thousand heads, of this Titan of the century, whom I call *everybody*, takes part in my play for a flying moment, to utter but one word, fling a single glance. Perhaps his action in the tale consists of a smile, he appears but to vanish. Listless and absent-minded, he acts without passion, without anger, without guile, often for mere distraction's sake.

"*D. Julian:* What then?

"*Ernest:* These light words, these fugitive glances, these indifferent smiles, all these evanescent sounds and this trivial evil, which may be called the insignificant rays of the dramatic light, condensed to one focus, to one group, result in conflagration or explosion, in strife, and in victims. If I represent the whole by a few types or symbolical personages, I bestow upon each one that which is really dispersed among many, and such a result distorts my idea. I must bring types on the stage whose guile repels, and is the less natural because evil in them has no object. This exposes me to worse consequence, to the accusation of meaning to paint a cruel, corrupted, and debased society, when my sole pretension is to prove that not even the most insignificant actions are in themselves insignificant or lost for good or evil. For, concentrated by the mysterious influences of modern life, they may reach to immense effects."

The title of the play is taken from Dante's story of Françesca da Rimini, in which the erring lovers read of Lancelot and Queen Guinevere, the reference being to the lines: "The book was Galeoto, no more we read within the book that day." "Galeoto" is used as a name for the vague whispers and secret slanders which ruin the happiness of honest people who on the slightest reason, or for no reason, incur the suspicions of malicious gossips. How this is done is told in the play:

"*Ernest:* Galeoto was the go-between for the Queen and Lancelot, and in all loves the *third* may be truthfully nicknamed Galeoto, above all when we wish to suggest an ugly word without shocking an audience.

"*Pepito:* I see, but have we no Spanish word to express it?

"*Ernest:* We have one, quite suitable and expressive enough. 'Tis an office that converts desires into ducats, overcomes scruples, and is fed upon the affections. It has a name, but to use it would be putting a fetter upon myself, forcing myself to express what, after all, I would leave unsaid. (Takes the manuscript from Pepito and flings it upon the table.) Each especial case, I have remarked, has its own especial go-between. Sometimes it is the entire social mass that is Galeoto. It then unconsciously exercises the office under the influence of a vice of quite another aspect, but so dexterously does it work against honor and modesty that no greater Galeoto can ever be found. Let a man and woman live happily, in earnest fulfilment of their separate duties. Nobody minds them, and they float along at ease. But God be praised, this is a state of things that does not last long in Madrid. One morning somebody takes the trouble to notice them, and from that moment, behold society engaged in the business, without aim or object, on the hunt for hidden frailty and impurity. Then it pronounces and judges, and there is no logic that can convince it, no living man who can hope to persuade it, and the honestest has not a rag of honor left. And the terrible thing is, that while it begins in error it generally ends in truth. The atmosphere is so dense, misery so envelops the pair, such is the press and torrent of slander, that they unconsciously seek one another, unite lovelessly, drift toward their fall, and adore each other until death. The world was the stumbling-stone of virtue, and made clear the way for shame—was Galeoto."

At the very rise of the curtain the mysterious Galeoto appears. *Don Julian*, a wealthy banker of Madrid, and his young wife *Teodora* have just returned from the theater, where their appearance without their ward, the young poet *Ernest*, has caused a general chatter among the town gossips. Of this the three have been entirely ignorant, but they are soon enlightened by *Don Severo*, the husband's brother, and his wife *Mercedes*. *Teodora* laughs at the slanders, but *Don Julian* angrily resents his

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brother's warning, and will hear nothing that touches on his wife's honor or *Ernest's* loyalty. Then suddenly he sees the two talking happily together, and in spite of himself becomes anxious. They are both young—much younger than he—and what if——? The subtle poison of the great Galeoto of slander is at work.

The inevitable catastrophe is hurried on by a quarrel between *Ernest* and the *Viscount Nelreda*, who had publicly gossiped of *Teodora*. A duel is arranged, but *Don Julian*, hearing of the affair, goes to *Nelreda's* house and demands immediate satisfaction. They fight, and *Don Julian* is mortally wounded. In the mean time *Teodora* has gone to *Ernest's* lodgings to forbid him to fight for her. While she pleads with him, and shows her fear that he may be killed, there is a sound of approaching voices, and *Don Julian* is borne in. *Teodora* hides behind the curtain of *Ernest's* couch, where she is discovered by her husband, who thinks that she had been keeping an appointment with his ward. *Don Julian* dies believing that his wife and *Ernest* love each other, and they find themselves driven into love by the force of public suspicion and slander. *Don Severo* orders *Teodora* to leave her home, and *Ernest* takes her in his arms, the play ending with his defiance:

"Yes, now it is as you would have it. Never until this moment was there thought of sin between us. This woman's soul was pure as the sunbeams—my heart as clear as the skies. *Teodora* loved none but *Don Julian*. I was his loyal friend, ready to serve him to the death. And that I would swear to the Great Judge before whom *Don Julian* has now gone to arraign her and me. So, too, it would have been to the end. But now! We are as you would have us—laden with guilt, bold in shame. When the life-warmth fled from the body of the murdered *Don Julian*, it kindled in our hearts the flames of accursed passion. And now cry it from the windows and the house-tops—to all your neighbors, you and your kind: 'Yes, we were right—*Teodora* and *Ernest* are lovers—they confess it, without blame or blush.' And when they ask you who has wrought this—this—marvel and infamy, you may answer them: 'You have done it—and I—and that man there—and that one—all of us—everywhere. We mixed the subtle poison and scattered it to the winds, so that these two might breathe in it, to stifle conscience and stain their life.' Yes, the triumph is yours—you've done your hellish work well. Come, *Teodora*, they have given you to me—my sacred love, my eternal life. Henceforth you rest in my arms—they've willed it so—and may all-righteous Heaven judge between them and us!"

VICTOR HUGO IN HIS LETTERS.

POET, historian, dramatist, novelist, agitator, statesman, majestic figure in three revolutions, Victor Hugo could not be expected, perhaps, to expand his soul in letters. But for all that there is an abundance of interesting matter in the second series of his correspondence just published. This series as well as the first (noticed in our columns November 21, 1896) is edited hardly at all, the letters being arranged in simple chronological order, and falling naturally into four divisions as follows: I. Letters to Various Persons, from 1836-51. II. The *Coup d'État*—Letters from Brussels. III. Letters from Exile. IV. After the Fall of the Empire.

All the letters bear the stamp of his literary art, and most of them are aglow with feeling and high purpose. Perhaps one might say they are almost studiedly serious, for Hugo was always more or less of a *poseur* and kept in mind at all times how his epistles to public men would appear in printed memoirs. So well did he realize his own greatness that he was singularly free from the small vice of envy. His congratulations to new poets and authors are evidently sincere, always effusive, and generally oracular in tone. They are *ex cathedra*, every one, and yet show many warm friendships. The following passages are from two letters to Lamartine, one in 1838, the other twenty-four years later:

"You have written a grand poem, my friend. 'La chute d'un ange' is one of your most majestic creations. What will be the edifice, if these are only the bas reliefs! Never has the breath of nature more deeply penetrated and more amply inspired a work of art, from the base to the summit, and in its minutest details.

"Dear Lamartine, long ago, in 1820, the first lispings of my youthful muse were a cry of enthusiasm at the dazzling rise of your genius on the world. Those lines are in my published works, and I love them; they are there with many others which glorify your splendid gifts. To-day you think it is your turn to speak of me, and I am proud of it. We have loved each other for forty years."

Alexandre Dumas was his particular friend. To him he wrote from Brussels, in 1857:

"Great hearts are like great suns. They contain their own light and warmth. You have no need, therefore, of praise; you do not even need thanks; but I must tell you that I love you more every day, not only because you are one of the marvels of the age, but also because you are one of its consolations."

To George Sand, whom he was continually complimenting and praising, he wrote, in 1864:

"My pleasures are but few; your success is one of them, and one of the best. You give our age an opportunity for being just. I thank you for being great, and I thank you for being admired. In a gloomy period such as ours, your glory is a consolation."

In a letter "To a Workingman and Poet," dated October 3, 1837, is a fine exposition of his democratic views:

"The generous class to which you belong has a great future in store for it, but it must give the fruit time to ripen. This class, so noble and so useful, should eschew what makes little and seek what makes great; it should try to discover reasons for love rather than pretexts for hatred; it should learn to respect women and children; it should read and study in its leisure moments; it should develop its intelligence, and it will achieve success. I have said in one of my works: The day when the people become intelligent, they will rule."

He did not grow less radical, but more so, with age. Thirty years later we find him writing to Swinburne as follows:

"You are right. You, Byron, and Shelley, three aristocrats, three republicans; and I, it is from aristocracy that I have risen to democracy; it is from the peerage that I have arrived at the republic, as one passes from a river to the ocean."

In a letter to M. Chenay, dated January 21, 1861, he wrote, concerning the capture and execution of John Brown:

"John Brown is a hero and a martyr. His death was a crime. His gibbet is a cross. You remember that I wrote at the foot of the drawing: *Pro Christo, sicut Christus.*

"When, in December, 1859, I predicted to America with deep sorrow the rupture of the Union as a consequence of the murder of John Brown, I did not think that the event would follow so quickly on my words. At the present moment all that was in John Brown's scaffold is issuing from it; the latent fatalities of a year ago are now visible, and from henceforth the rupture of the American Union, a great calamity, is to be dreaded; but the abolition of slavery, an immense step in advance, to be hoped for."

And Cuba libre as well found in him a champion. The following was addressed to the revolutionary committee of Porto Rico, November 24, 1867:

"The republic of Porto Rico has fought bravely for its liberty. The revolutionary committee acquaints me of this, and I thank it for doing so. Spain turned out of America! that is the great aim; that is the great duty for Americans. Cuba free like St. Domingo. I applaud all these great efforts."

But perhaps the finest impression comes from the letters addressed by the great poet and romancer to his wife. They are a beautiful record of domestic affection and the constant solicitude

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of a loving parent. Proscribed by Louis Napoleon, after the *coup d'état*, on the famous second of December, 1851, Victor Hugo left his house, and, like all his republican friends in the Assembly, never returned. This he describes in his world-famous book, "L'Histoire d'un Crime." During the "eight-days' struggle," he scribbled hasty notes in pencil to his wife and sent them to the house of a friend addressed to Mme. Riviere. When the Empire finally triumphed, he had to think of his own safety, and took refuge in Brussels. From there he wrote a series of brief, somewhat explosive letters to his wife, reflecting well the agitations and aspirations of that turbulent period, and, at the same time, revealing all the love and tenderness of his domestic relations as well as his own nobility of character. The following are selected from a mass of letters to his wife:

BRUSSELS, Sunday, 14th (December, 1851) 3 P.M.

To Mme. Victor Hugo:

I open your letter, dearest, and answer it at once. . . . . .

For twelve days I have been betwixt life and death, but I have not had a moment's uneasiness. I have been satified with myself. And then I know that I have done my duty, and that I have done it thoroughly. That is a source of satisfaction. I met with complete devotion from those around me. Sometimes my life was at the mercy of ten persons at once. A word might have ruined me, but it was never spoken.

I owe an immense deal to M. and Mme. de M———, whom I mentioned to you. It was they who saved me at the most critical moment. Pay a *very friendly* visit to Mme. de M———. She lives near you, at No. 2, Rue Navarin. Some day I will tell you all that they did for me. In the mean while you can not show yourself too grateful to them. It was all the more meritorious on their part because they are in the other camp, and the service they rendered me *might have seriously compromised them.* Give them credit for all this, and be very nice to Mme. de M——— and her husband, who is the best of men. The mere sight of him will make you like him. . . . . .

Send me detailed news of my dear children, of my daughter, who must have suffered much. Tell them all to write to me. The poor boys must have been very uncomfortable in prison, owing to the crowding. Has any fresh severity been practised on them? Write to me about it. I know that you go to see them every day. Do you still dine with our dear colony? . . . . . .

I lead the life of an anchorite. I have a tiny bed, two straw-bottomed chairs, and no fire. My total expenses amount to three francs a day, everything included. . . . . .

Tell my Charles that he must become quite a man. In the days when I carried my life in my hand I thought of him. He might at any moment have become the head of the family, the support of you all. He must think of this.

Live sparingly. Make the money which I left you last a long time. I have enough in prospect to get along here for some months. . . . . .

BRUSSELS, 22d February (1852).

To Mme. Victor Hugo:

I begin by telling you that you are a noble and admirable woman. Your letters bring tears to my eyes. Everything is in them—dignity, strength, simplicity, courage, reason, serenity, tenderness. When you discuss politics you do it well, your judgment is good and your remarks to the point. When you discuss business and family matters, you show your large, kind heart. How, then, can you imagine that I have a shadow of an *arrière penseé* with you, or with any one? What have I to hide from you—from you above all people?

My life will bear the closest scrutiny and so will my inmost thoughts. You do not like to speak to me about money matters. I can quite understand it. We are poor, and we must try to pass with credit through an ordeal which may come to an end soon, but which may last long. I wear out my old shoes and my old clothes; that is easy enough. You have to bear privations, pain, penury even; that is not so easy because you are a wife and mother, but you do it gladly and nobly. How, then, could I mistrust you? About what and for what reason? Is not everything which I have yours? Do not say *your* money, say *our* money. I am the administrator, that is all. As soon as I see my poor sons working as I do, as soon as I find a market and a publisher somewhere, at Brussels or in London, no matter where, provided it is in a free country, as soon as I have sold a manuscript, then I will hold my hand and make the whole family more comfortable. In the mean while, we must suffer a little. As for me, it is your sufferings which pain me, and not my own. . . . . .

I see from the answer which Charles gives you and which he has shown me that you scolded him a little in your letter. Do not scold him. I want to see him pleased and happy by my side, and if he will not work, how can we help it? Some day or other, I hope, reason will come, something will tempt him, and he will set to work. In the mean while I try to make him happy. I do not reproach him, I give him complete liberty, and I do what I can to make him like living with me. I am sorry that he does not tell you anything of this in his letter. Some day my children will know all that I have been to them. . . . . .

BRUSSELS, 19th March (1852).

To Mme. Victor Hugo:

. . . Since I wrote to you, Charles has taken to work again a little. Press him in the same direction as I do: a solid, serious book, with the stamp of exile on it, and making it impossible for any one to say that he has learned nothing from his imprisonment.

He is in great request here. He is very nice, and that accounts for it. I advise him to be dignified and serious, even with women. No levity, no debts, and work before play. He agrees to everything, and I will try to make him practise it. But I sadly need you to help me. Write to him always from this point of view, without ever scolding him.

BRUSSELS, 13th July (1852).

To Mme. Victor Hugo:

. . . Charles is finishing his novel. He read me the first chapters, which were admirably done. It is very remarkable, as regards both style and matter. I have no doubt whatever of its success, and I think you will be pleased.

The Paris correspondent of the London *Academy* is not exactly crushed with a sense of reverence in perusing the correspondence. He writes:

"The letters are interesting to read, but they only tell us what we already knew of Victor Hugo: that he was a hard worker, an admirable husband and father, an indefatigable letter-writer, and an adept courtier of that capricious sovereign, popularity; a trifle histrionic in his attitude to his friends, who cover the whole of Europe almost; wholly Napoleonic toward the rest of his literary brothers. Whenever a young man sends him a volume of verse or prose, he at once writes back to him: 'Young man, you have a great talent, a generous heart, a noble mind. Give me your hand.' When it is a lady who courts his approval, he thus addresses her: 'Madame, you are all grace and charm; that is to say, you are a woman. Permit me to kiss the charming hands that have written such beautiful things, and behold me respectfully at your feet.' Or he tells her that he fears he is in love with her, but takes refuge in contemplation of his gray hairs. He never writes to any one outside his domestic circle (where he is always delightfully tender and affectionate) as a simple mortal. We are never permitted to see the poet otherwise than athwart the shadow of his reputation. He always seems to address us in front of his own statue, and can not forget for five precious minutes that he is 'the greatest poet of the century.' There is nothing extraordinary in this, for it would require a simplicity and modesty Victor Hugo was far from possessing to have forgotten for an instant such a flamboyant reputation as his. Intellectual kingship is the most difficult to wear, and the sublime attitude inevitably touches the ridiculous."

A New Play by Alexandre Dumas on Ibsen Lines.—The late Alexandre Dumas (the son), it appears from the French papers, left an unfinished play entitled "La Route de Thèbes." Only the last scene, the *dénouement*, is lacking, and it is the opinion of such expert critics as Jules Claretie and Sardou that the play can be produced without the closing scene and that its absolute success is beyond doubt. The play was written under the influence of Ibsen and is totally different from the typical Dumas dramas. The author, it is said, wanted to show what he could do with the symbolic form. One critic says that the play far out-Ibsens Ibsen. It is proposed to invite Duse to play

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it in Paris, for Dumas always intended his plays for this great Italian actress. So far Dumas's widow and daughters have opposed the production of the play, on the ground that, not long before his death, the playwright stated he had not made up his mind in regard to the proper ending. But the insistent appeals of Dumas's friends and followers will, it is believed, prevail upon his rightful heirs and the necessary permission will be obtained. A great sensation is anticipated by literary and artistic circles.

THREE TESTS OF THE NOVEL.

"THE change is certainly a notable one," remarks Rev. Dr. D. S. Gregory, of *The Homiletic Review*, "from the day when novel-reading was considered the eighth deadly sin to the day when it has come to be the chief end of man." Dr. Gregory would not, in order to avoid the exaggerated importance now given to the novel, hark back to the days when it was tabooed altogether by religious people; but he would apply some test that will enable the reader, and especially the clerical reader, for whom more particularly he is writing, to sift the true and wholesome from the false and injurious. To begin with, he accepts Peter Bayne's definition of the novel: "The novel is scientifically definable as a domestic history, in which the whole interest and all the facts are made to combine in the evolution of a tale of love." Dr. Gregory would add, to complete the definition, that its—the novel's—origin is in the imagination. Evidently the modern "novel with a purpose" is not very apt to find a lodging-place under this definition; but this does not distress the writer. He says:

"We affirm here that the novel is essentially unfit to be made an instrument of universal instruction. It can not be trusted to do anything higher than to portray domestic life as it is shaped under the influence of great truths. The more absorbing nature of less important and merely objective matter, the passion, the hurry of dramatic movement, all unfit the reader who gives himself up to its sway for clear seeing. We venture to affirm also that the novelist is constitutionally unfit to be a teacher of scientific truth in any department. The born naturalist can not appreciate metaphysics; the born metaphysician is almost certain to undervalue the truth of exact science; the born novelist appreciates neither, but is essentially an idealizer. He can not be trusted. He is so made that he can not but 'draw upon his imagination for his facts.' It is his confirmed habit so to do. On the whole, the conclusion is unavoidable that only evil can result from the attempt to put the novelist with his productions in the seat of the other and authorized teachers of the world. Mrs. Humphry Ward and Mr. Hall Caine can not teach us any theology worth the reading, for the simple and all-sufficient reason that they do not know it and are incapacitated for knowing it."

The quality of a novel should, we are told, be tested by "the three laws of value"—the laws of the true, the good, and the beautiful. Whatever of man's making does not conform to these three laws is an error or a sin or a deformity, and has no right to exist. First as to the law of the true, which requires a novel to conform to reality:

"Genius is not, as so many seem to think, the rival of God, but His seer, interpreter, and imitator. If it be able and willing to *see*, it will find infinite variety and meaning in the lessons divinely set for it to read; and if it be able and willing to *shape* its portraiture of what it sees after God's law of the true, it will thereby reach the farthest possible for it in its art-creation up toward God. . . . He should be required to give us love with true home sentiments and honest heart-feelings, and not the puling sentimentality of the satanic press with its everlasting erotic developments. In delineating character he should furnish genuine living beings, and not conventional forms and figure-heads, as does Dickens—essentially a caricaturist—when in some of his novels he causes a regiment of so-called men and women to pass before us without so much as one genuine character after nature's pattern."

The law of the good requires that the novelist report not all the facts of domestic life, "but in ordinary cases only noble fact or that which accords with the good in its aspects of the right, the pure, and the beneficent, using lower facts solely, if at all, in these higher interests." In developing this thought, the Doctor quotes approvingly Professor Boyesen's words in which the tales of Stevenson, Crockett, Doyle, and Haggard are described as "unutterably flimsy and juvenile" compared with Tolstoi's "masterly transcripts of life." Scott, Thackeray, and Dickens are all more or less guilty of violating this law of the good. We quote again:

"We do not raise the question here of the necessity of introducing moral evil into the novel; for that, let it be freely admitted, is the dark background by contrast with which the richest glow of moral beauty is brought out. In the world of the novel, as in the real world, evil to be resisted, endured, remedied, vanquished, affords the only field in which the characters can exert their intellectual and moral force. Mighty men are brought to light and developed by tasking their human powers to the utmost in the contest with evil. It is essential to fiction. It is not a question of the *fact* of introducing evil, but of the *method* and the *end*. The same character, by one artist in one setting, may be wholly base; by another and in a different place, a means to some exalted good. To illustrate: ostensibly the same being Satan figures in 'Paradise Lost,' in 'Faust,' in 'Cain,' in 'A Drama of Exile,' and in the Bible; but what vast moral differences in the presentation! It is not that Dumas *fils* is immoral in introducing a heroine of the demi-monde in dealing with his subject, 'La dame aux Camélias,' but that he 'violates the logic of life in representing her as a lovely and sentimental creature, and capable of as pure and exalting a passion as a woman who had never sinned.' It is not that Du Maurier in 'Trilby' introduces the grisette as his heroine; but that he 'extols the grisette, implying that an occasional lapse from virtue is, on the whole, a venial affair and leaves the core of the character unimpaired.' The objection to Musette and Trilby is that they are rose-colored lies and are the more dangerous because uncritical youth will take them to be types of their kind and will never suspect how untrue they are, how far removed from reality."

The third law of value, the law of the beautiful, is touched upon very briefly, the writer agreeing with Henry Rogers when he says: "No fiction is, intellectually, worth anybody's reading that has not considerable merit as a work of art."

NOTES.

ACCORDING to a newspaper paragraph, efforts are being made in Augusta, Ga., to raise money for a monument to Paul Hamilton Hayne, the Southern poet.

THE New York *Times*' literary supplement computes from data obtained from Appleton's *Annual Cyclopedia* and its own files that, during the past five years, $165,800,000 has been contributed in this country from private fortunes for libraries, colleges, museums, and other public educational institutions. More than $45,000,000 was donated in 1897.

THE present Lord Tennyson is said to be engaged in writing notes to certain of his father's poems, the copyright of which is about to expire, "Maud" being one of the number, the object of these notes being, of course, by their incorporation in future editions to preserve a monopoly, even when cheap rival editions appear. "Like his famous father," comments *The Mail and Express*, New York, "the second Lord Tennyson is a man of business."

The Free Press, Detroit, in an article entitled "More than Forty Thieves," throws some light on literary larcenies. The following paragraph will be news to many readers: "The manager of a publishing house in this country, which issues as a side enterprise a weekly magazine, told the present writer last year that in a single twelve months' time fifty poems and twelve stories and sketches were sent back to their writers because they had appeared in print elsewhere, long before, over other names." Some, it appears, have found thievery so profitable that they have abandoned originality entirely: "In editorial offices it is held generally that the greater amount of this flagrant stealing is done by young men and women in the callow and salad stage of writing activity. . . . Yet there are men and women in New York who make their living by committing literary thefts and disposing of their plunder wherever they can. They may use a different name in every instance and never approach the same publication twice, and there are cases in which literary hacks have confessed at the end of their lives that they have stolen the work of others and from the selling of it as their own have managed to eke out an existence that has at least kept them in such spirits and health as would enable them to go on with their criminal practises."

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SCIENCE AND INVENTION.

PHOTOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS OF GUNPOWDER.

THE measurement of the smoke-producing qualities of different styles of powder has been successfully accomplished by means of photography by the Count de Perpigna. He contributes an illustrated account of his apparatus and results to *La Nature* (Paris, April 16). The powders experimented upon by M. de Perpigna were varieties of so-called "smokeless" powder manufactured by the French Government, as well as the ordinary black gunpowder. The count says:

"The use of the so-called smokeless powders has become general, during the last few years, among the different peoples of Europe, because of the numerous advantages that they offer, especially in weapons of war. These powders cause pressures

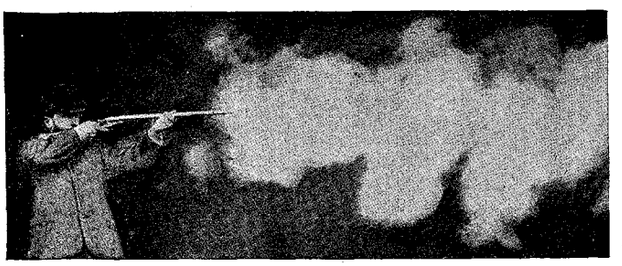

FIG. 1.—SMOKE FROM BLACK POWDER.

that are not excessive, and give to projectiles considerable velocities, which render the fire more effective and at the same time increase the range.

"The inconvenience that results from smoke is, of course, less in the shooting of game, but many of our sportsmen have abandoned the good black powder of our fathers to make use exclusively of the government pyroxylated powders.

"There have been for some time two types of these powders—the J-powder and the S-powder. Their use has disclosed serious inconveniences which have caused complaints, and in response to these the government powder authorities have put on the market two new explosives called M-powder and R-powder.

"We shall not undertake here to enumerate the ballistic qualities of these new products; neither shall we ask what speed, and

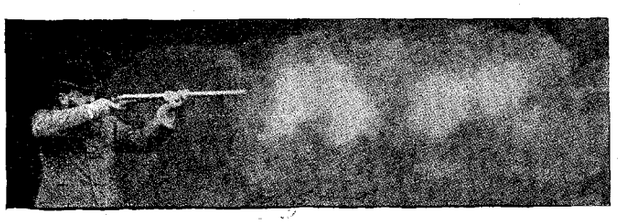

FIG. 2.—SMOKE FROM J-POWDER.

hence what penetration, they give to the projectiles, nor what pressures they determine in guns intended for sporting purposes. . . . We shall only study French sporting powders from the interesting and modern point of view of the quantity of smoke resulting from their combustion."

With this object in view the count constructed a special apparatus, worked by the discharge of the firearm itself, for registering automatically on a photographic plate the amount of smoke developed by each of the powders to be studied.

A special target was placed before the gun at a distance of ten yards. At the left was a black screen with sufficient surface to act as a background for all the smoke produced. At the right, at twelve yards' distance, was the photographic apparatus having a shutter worked by an electric current, furnished by a small battery.

The target measured 60 centimeters [24 inches] in diameter. At the center was a round opening 12 centimeters [5 inches] in diameter, closed by a blackened steel disk, hinged at its lower edge, so that it could open backward when struck by bullets in the center.

At the limit of this backward opening, the disk struck against

FIG. 3.—EXPERIMENT WITH THE NEW M-POWDER.

a tube intended to protect from stray bullets the wire that supported the weight which by its fall interrupted the electric current coming from the battery.

The weight was hung behind the disk to a little hook from which it slipped off when the central disk was forced violently backward by the shock of the bullets.

The weight, disengaged from the hook, fell 12 centimeters [5 inches], so that the shutter was operated just one-fourth second after the detonation. This scarcely appreciable lapse of time was necessary to allow the smoke to develop a sufficient volume

FIG.—4.—EXPERIMENT WITH S-POWDER.

to cover the whole surface of the screen and give it time to get beyond the muzzle of the gun.

The weight fell on two pieces of copper held in contact by springs, which thus gave passage to the current up to the instant when the contact was broken by the shock of the weight.

An electromagnet fixed at the right of the camera exercised its attraction directly on the shutter.

The count says:

"In all the experiments, the proper charge was calculated for obtaining an initial velocity of 270 yards a second, which is sufficient to kill game at ordinary distances.

"The pictures show clearly the differences in the smoke, and require no explanation.

"Black powder makes a heavy and thick smoke that interposes

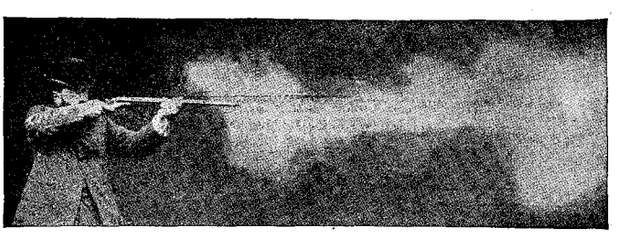

FIG. 5.—SMOKE FROM R-POWDER.

like a screen between the marksman and the target (Fig. 1).

"J-powder, which in its mode of combustion is similar to the preceding, gives smoke sensibly less intense, but still opaque enough to annoy the sportsman on a moist evening in autumn (Fig. 2).

"The new M-powder, which is similar to the English Schultze

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powder, gives off light vapors which quickly disappear (Fig. 3). Besides, as the products of combustion are less abundant and less adherent than those of the S-powder, it is preferable to the latter from this point of view. But on the other hand, the S-powder, of all powders, is that which gives off least smoke.

"It is unnecessary to dwell on the irregularity of combustion of R-powder, which is such that the camera registered grains that burned outside the gun, like a display of fireworks in the midst of the smoke produced by the discharge (Fig. 5).

"This is, doubtless, the cause of the lack of penetration complained of by many sportsmen during the past season."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

DETERMINATION OF TIME OF DEATH BY BIOLOGICAL EXAMINATION.

SOME time ago we described Dr. Mégnin's plan for determining how long a person had been dead by examination of the microscopic forms of animal life in the body. His investigations seem to be regarded with more favor in France than in this country. The present condition of the subject is thus set forth in a brief note in *The British Medical Journal*, which says:

"He [Dr. Mégnin] has shown that there is a succession of insects which inhabit the cadaver in regular order, and asserts that the sequence of these squads is so systematic that not only is it possible to determine the time that has elapsed since interment took place, but also to state the season of the year at which this took place. In one of the cases in question the following was the condition of the cadaveric fauna. In the first place, an entire absence of members of the first two squads—that is, dipterous insects. From this absence of diptera Mégnin argues that death took place in winter. In the second place there was found a large number of active dermestes larvæ, together with many empty chrysalis cases of the same form. The presence of dermestes indicates the lapse of six months, and as the metamorphosis of this former occupies four months, this gives ten months as the time elapsed since death. In the other case the date of death was fixed by similar means. But while experience in France is leading to definite results, from America comes a protest against the accuracy of Mégnin's deductions. In a paper entitled 'Underground Zoology and Legal Medicine,' read at the annual meeting of the British Medical Association at Montreal, Dr. Motter, of Washington, from a study of one hundred and fifty interments insisted that no absolutely certain data were to be had from the condition of the cadaver alone."

Dr. Motter, it seems, finds that considering only the more important mites, beetles, and flies, a large number occur at very varying periods after death. The field, he says, "is far too broad, and our knowledge of it far too limited for any one concise, comprehensive, and unqualified formula to be laid down."

Government Adoption of the Metric System.—The metric system of weights and measures, as every one knows, has been legally allowed in this country for many years. It is now proposed to go further, and make its use compulsory in all departments of the federal Government. Of course Congress can do no more than this, but even this would doubtless do much toward bringing about the general adoption of the system Of the prospects that this plan will be carried out *The Railway and Engineering Review*, Chicago, April 9, speaks as follows:

"The committee on coinage, weights, and measures has in charge the Hurley bill providing for the adoption of the metric system and making its use compulsory throughout the several departments of the Government. The friends of the measure think that a favorable report will be made. The passage of the bill would facilitate very much the work of many of the departments, since practically all foreign countries except Great Britain are now using the system, so that in foreign commerce we are obliged to employ both the English and metric systems. A large part of the imports from foreign countries are billed in the metric system, with the result that computations have to be made at the custom houses to enable importers to ascertain the amount of duties payable at this end of the line. It would seem that one effect of adopting the system will be to enable us to better secure and hold much foreign trade which at present we do not reach. The importance of the measure to engineers and men of science may be understood from our past expressions on the subject, and its adoption as proposed would hasten the general use of the system in the country at large."

THE SUBCONSCIOUS SELF AND ITS EDUCATION.

BESIDES that which every man acknowledges to be his very self—his "ego" the philosophers call it—there is another self that follows it like a shadow—a self made up of odds and ends of impressions and feelings usually all unnoticed, but cropping out strangely at times. For this "alter ego," which has been much discussed by psychologists of late, Dr. Louis Waldstein accepts the name of "the subconscious self," and this phrase he uses as the title of a recent book on the subject (New York, 1897), in which he treats this "underground" or unnoticed ego specially in its relation to education and health. After noting that all our knowledge comes originally from outside, and is derived from impressions on our organs of sense—modified, of course, by the personal qualities of each individual—Dr. Waldstein goes on to say:

"One fact it is necessary to insist upon: that, in whatever degree or manner these perceptions may have been received, they are registered permanently; they are never absolutely lost. We can not, it is true, recall at will every impression which has been received during the course of our existence, and so give direct proof of this assertion; but the countless instances of the reappearance of the most feeble impressions, coming up again after many years, should make further proof unnecessary. Impressions that have been registered in early childhood, for instance, reappear involuntarily, thus showing their original tenacity at a period of life when no selective process, or reasons for remembering or forgetting, can possibly have been at work."

All sense impressions are either conscious or unconscious, and the latter go to make up our "unconscious self." Of the occasional cropping out of this self Dr. Waldstein says further:

"Very often these accidental or subconscious impressions are exceedingly effective in recalling such a past experience in its vital entirety. Thus, the scent of a flower, a song, even the sensation of temperature or of the moving air, conjure up with vividness and completeness an entire scene or incident which in itself made no deep impression and seemed entirely lost for years. In reality it is not the impression that is repeated, it is the mood that corresponds to the primary subconscious experience, and it is the mood also that might recall the conscious state into existence. Thus, a warm draft of air in midwinter, fanning the face suddenly and for an instant, charged with some exotic scent, may call up a person, incident, or locality connected with a period of one's life passed years ago in the South, or it may only create a mood corresponding to the sadness or joy of those days. We have all been swayed by such sudden mental conditions, and our opinions and actions may even be governed by them, and, ponder as we may, we generally find it impossible to account for them."

The great importance of the subconscious self from an educational standpoint, which is strongly insisted upon throughout Dr. Waldstein's book, is strikingly suggested thus at the outset:

"The education which is given in civilized countries all the world over differs little in its essential parts; the conscious self is therefore substantially the same wherever schools and colleges exist. The subconscious self, however, which is built up out of that countless multitude of subconscious impressions and their recurrence coming from the surroundings, customs, language, national types, physical effects of climate, and so many other sources, is

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widely different. An 'educated' Frenchman's opinions—whether he be a merchant, a professional man, or an artisan—may be in no wise different from those of an educated Englishman, or of an educated German; he is, as we properly say, 'a man of the world.' But when, for any reason—emotional, for instance, or through depression, or illness—his conscious self is weakened or fails him, his subconscious self asserts itself and the national characteristics appear in spite of 'intellectual' culture. In like manner do the more individual environments of his home create a subconscious self in every person, and make of him not merely a representative of his times, but produce in him those qualities peculiar to his country, to his nativity, and to the class in society to which he belongs—thus stamping him at once with all their limitations and idiosyncrasies."

The subconscious self thus furnishes the material from which genius draws much of its so-called "inspiration." The artist's or poet's creations often proceed therefrom, tho, as has been said, their innate qualities may give to the materials color and character:

"It is through the subconscious self that Shakespeare must have perceived without effort great truths, which are hidden from the conscious mind of the student, that Phidias fashioned marble and bronze, that Raphael painted Madonnas, and Beethoven composed symphonies. It is futile to attempt an explanation of these artistic phenomena from the purely conscious point of view, and it is for this reason that all efforts of analysis fail to make us understand the workings of genius, which we realize but can not follow."

From all this it follows that from earliest infancy every surrounding, every sensation, every instinct, is of enormous educational value. A child's education, so far as these are concerned, may be turned wholly into good or into bad channels, so as to influence his life, before he has entered school or even learned to read. Throughout his book the author endeavors to tell us how all these early impressions may be guided and governed, some of his suggestive sub-headings being "Instinct," "Culture in Childhood," "Racial and Religious Prejudice," "Life in the Country," etc. Dr. Waldstein regards the country as the true place for bringing up children, city life having a decidedly "degenerative effect." He also advocates taking from the domain of subconsciousness many of the impressions that are usually kept there; thus, he would carefully train the sense of smell, which is now undeveloped in man and is allowed to shift for itself as far as education is concerned. In conclusion Dr. Waldstein says:

"A dualism exists in the life of every one of us, more or less accentuated according to the difference between our conscious and our subconscious self. The higher pleasures and the deeper pains depend upon this relation, and he alone can be happy who has established a true balance between his innermost desires, arising out of his subconscious self, and the duties that impose themselves upon him from his consciousness of all the responsibilities which his understanding has taught him to recognize. It must be the constant aim of him who aspires to the highest degree of culture to educate both parts of himself in such a manner that the one may act in due degree upon the other. For the real tragedy in every man's inner life is the conflict between these two inherent parts of his inner self, and when we have learned to understand the workings of these mental powers in ourselves, we shall be slow in passing judgment upon our fellow men:

'What's done we partly may compute,
But know not what's resisted.'"

SOME time ago we quoted *Industries and Iron*, London, as remarking that the account of the replacement of the Schuylkill railroad bridge in Philadelphia in two minutes and twenty-eight seconds "would be creditable if credible." The paper now recedes from its skeptical attitude with the following graceful apology: "Suffice it to say that it was done, and we congratulate our American friends accordingly. At the same time, they should not be angry with us for doubting the possibility of such a remarkable feat, seeing that we had but a bald statement in an American paper for our text. It is the old story of Columbus's egg. The thing is very simple when you know how to do it, and American engineers deserve credit for knowing how."

HOW DO WE SEE COLORS?

IT is hard for the average man to realize that our sensations do not always correspond to the facts of nature. We find that the prism splits white light up into a gradation of tints, each of which can not be split any farther. Hence we would be apt to conclude that each of these must cause an elementary color sensation. But further experiment will show that some of these colors can also be made up by mixing some of the others. The yellow of the rainbow, for instance, can not be analyzed into elements, yet the same yellow can be made by mixing red and green light. Here are two separate physical things that give the same sensation. The study of the things belongs to optics; the study of the sensations to physiology. The fact that certain colors can be made by mixing certain others has led us to call them compound, but they may be compound only in physiology, not necessarily in physics. These phenomena have led scientific men to call the three colors that can not be made by mixture "elementary colors," and the effort to explain why they can not be made by mixture, and to account for other curious facts, has led to various theories of color-vision. Some of the chief of these are explained in popular language in *Cosmos* (Paris, February 5) by Dr. André Brocchi, whose article we translate, in part, below:

"The sense of sight, so complex, is perhaps that which makes us understand best the subjective nature of the ideas that we get of the exterior world. We know how differently different individuals interpret the color-sensations in the brain. Some are strongly affected by blue, others by yellow; we say of a painter that he 'sees blue, or yellow,' that he paints clearly, or that he 'sees black.' The idea of color is so clearly a function of our mental centers that there is, as we shall see farther on, such a thing as a real education of the color-sense. How the retina can transmit to the brain these sensations of color is the problem to which so many eminent scientific men have devoted themselves, and yet this problem still awaits a solution—so vague is still our knowledge of mental operations.

"Two ingenious theories are particularly prominent at present—that of Thomas Young, adopted by Helmholtz [and known as the Young-Helmholtz theory], and that of Hering.

"The first asserts that there are in the retina three kinds of nervous fibrils, each of which is capable of responding to one of the three elementary or fundamental colors: the red (the longest ether waves that we are capable of perceiving), the green, and the blue-violet. From these three sensations all the others are derived, the color-sensations of any possible kind being all made up of different states of excitation of these three kinds of nerves, and the sensation being the resultant of the degree of excitation of these fibrils by the undulations of the ether. Take, for example, the sensation of yellow: the ether waves strongly excite the fibers sensitive to red and green and feebly those of violet. The sensation of red excites the red fibrils powerfully and the two others feebly. And so on. When the three kinds of fibrils are equally excited, we have the sensation of white.

"In Hering's theory there are six simple sensations of sight, arranged in opposing pairs or couples. These are, black and white, green and red, blue and yellow. As for the other colors, violet is regarded as composed of red and blue, orange of red and yellow, etc. These six type-sensations exist always at the same time, but some are in a latent state, if we may use such an expression; they do not pass what psychologists call the threshold of consciousness; the others are active, or, rather, are in action. Blue and yellow or red and green can not be in action at the same time. . . . When green exists, red can not be perceived by consciousness, etc. Hering compares these colors to the negative and positive poles of a magnet, and he calls them polar colors.

"There exist in the retina, according to this theory, not nerve-fibrils, but substances called by Hering *Sehsubstanz* (visual substance), which undergo chemical change when the organ acts—changes that cause the different elementary sensations of color.

"When we have the sensation of white . . . the visual substance is used up more or less rapidly, the intensity being proportional to the disappearance of the substance corresponding to this color; but there follows the formation of new matter to make up for the loss. . . . According to Hering, just as the sensation

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of white is due to the decomposition of the white visual substance, that of black is due to its reformation. It is the same for the other pairs of colors, decomposition and separation determining all our color-sensations.

"M. Happe even goes into details, and calls white, red, and yellow 'decomposition-colors,' and black, green, and blue 'assimilation-colors."

Altho these visual substances are largely hypothetical, a process similar to that supposed to take place has actually been observed in the eye. In 1876, Dr. Brocchi tells us, a substance since called "visual purple" was discovered in the retina by Boll. Red light makes its color at first more intense and then causes it to disappear slowly. For normal vision there must be a balance between these actions. All this somewhat elaborate theory is largely constructed to account for the so-called "color-ghosts" and other similar effects. When any one looks at a spot of color and then turns his eye aside he sees at once a "ghost" of the complementary color, that is, the color that mixed with the other makes white. In Hering's theory this is because of the unbalanced regenerative action set up by the decomposition of the visual substance due to the perception of the first color. In the Young-Helmholtz theory, on the other hand, the effect is due to the fatigue of one set of fibrils by looking at the first color so that the other fibrils act more powerfully when a neutral object is regarded. Dr. Brocchi does not mention an important modification of Hering's theory that is due to an American woman, Mrs. Christine Ladd Franklin, but he notes the theory of Preyer, which regards color-sensation as dependent primarily on sensations of heat and cold. Says Dr. Brocchi:

"Preyer maintains that each nervous fiber of the retina terminates in two cones, one of which is sensitive to heat and the other to cold."

In this view color-sensation is only a special case of heat-sensation limited to the retina. The theory was doubtless suggested by the natural division of colors into "warm" colors (red, yellow, orange, etc.) and "cold" colors (blue, green, violet, etc.), familiar to artists. In closing, Dr. Brocchi mentions the discovery of M. Charpentier that every color-sensation can be divided into three phases: a simple sensation of light, a vague impression of color, and an exact perception of color. This shows, he believes, that the sensation of light is distinct from the true sensation of color, and that the latter consists first of an impression on the retina, and then of an exact analysis by the brain. The color-sense can thus be educated, and one may be taught to see color when he has never noticed it before—in deep shadow, for instance. In conclusion, Dr. Brocchi says of the theories of color-vision:

"These theories are ingenious, but none of them satisfies absolutely the needs of our reason."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

Hints to Smokers.—A German physician publishes the following hints to smokers, which we quote from a translation in *The Pharmaceutical Era*, New York. The hints, the doctor says, "are founded upon his professional observations for many years of the mouth, teeth, stomach, lungs, heart, and skin of the devotees of tobacco. The first and foremost rule is never to smoke before breakfast, nor, as a rule, when the stomach is empty. Never smoke during any exertion of great physical energy, as dancing, running, cycling, mountain climbing, or rowing, and especially if in a contest. Never follow 'the bad custom of the French and the Russians' by allowing the smoke to pass through the nose; never inhale it through the nose. Keep the smoke as far as possible from the eyes and nose; the longer the pipe the better; the use of a short pipe during work is to be avoided. A pipe is the most wholesome form of smoking. Always throw away your cigar as soon as you have smoked four fifths of it. The smoker should rinse his mouth with a glass of water in which a teaspoonful of table salt has been dissolved. It should be used as a gargle at night, and care should be taken that every cavity in the teeth is well washed with it."

A Possible Discovery.—The following paragraph, or something similar, has been going the rounds of the papers, sometimes expressed in more sensational and dogmatic fashion:

"Rychnowski, the electrician of Lemberg, claims to have discovered an electric fluid which he calls 'electroid.' The discovery has caused a great sensation in Europe. The effects of the fluid are said to be startling, producing light and causing Geissler tubes to emit fluorescent rays. It works photochemically, rotates objects in mid-air, produces whirlpools in water, and kills bacteria. Metal and glass thereby can be charged with electricity, and the magnetic needle changes direction under its influence."

It is impossible to tell how much fact there may be in this, or whether there is any truth at all in it. It may be said, however, in passing, that all the wonderful things enumerated so far can be done with ordinary, everyday electricity.

SCIENCE BREVITIES.

"SEVERAL years ago," says *The American Manufacturer*, "when the supply of natural gas showed such a decided drop, it was predicted that the new fuel would before long be a thing of the past. The latest report of the Philadelphia company, which has been the most extensive operator in natural gas, indicates that the supply is holding out unexpectedly well. This report is the thirteenth annual statement made by this company, and shows that during the past year it drilled 51 wells, 31 being productive of gas, 11 of oil, and 10 dry. The company is now operating 924.41 miles of pipe, has 68 telephone stations, and 380.3 miles of telephone wire. The amount of natural gas sold during the past year was 10,857,956,000 cubic feet, all of which was sold by meter."

"LIGHTING *the pyramids of Egypt with electricity and the installation of a* 25,000 horse-power power-plant, to cost some $400,000, is a plan now under consideration by the British Government, and the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, of Pittsburg, Pa., are reported as likely to receive the contract," says *The Engineering News*. "As outlined the plan includes the generation of electric power at the Assouan Falls on the Nile River and its transmission a distance of 100 miles through the cotton-growing districts, where, it is believed, the cheap power will permit the building of cotton factories. It is planned to use the power to illuminate the interior corridors of the pyramids and also operate pumping machinery for irrigating large areas of desert along the Nile."

ANGER A DISEASE.—"An English journal," says *The Medical Record*, "thus comments on the injurious effects of anger: 'Anger serves the unhappy mortal who indulges in it much the same as intoxicants constantly taken do the inebriate. It grows into a sort of disease which has various and terrible results. Sir Richard Quain said, not long ago: "He is a man very rich indeed in physical power who can afford to be angry." This is true. Every time a man becomes "white" or red with anger, he is in danger of his life. The heart and brain are the organs mostly affected when fits of passion are indulged in. Not only does anger cause partial paralysis of the small blood-vessels, but the heart's action becomes intermittent; that is, every now and then it drops a beat—much the same thing as is experienced by excessive smokers.'"

HOW COLD AFFECTS PLANTS.—In a recently published work on "Living Plants and their Properties" (New York, 1898), Prof. J. C. Arthur, of Purdue University, says: "If a section is made of a frozen leaf it will be found that the spaces between the cells usually containing air are filled almost solidly with ice crystals. From whence is this ice derived? . . . Protoplasm even in its simplest forms is highly automatic and self-regulating. When the cells of a leaf are subjected to a low temperature they contract, and a portion of the water is driven out into the intercellular spaces, where it is frozen. By this provision the proportion of water in the cells is reduced and the danger of ice formation and consequent destruction is averted. If now the temperature is again lowered, an additional amount of water is forced into the intercellular spaces, rendering the cell-solutions still more concentrated, and less easily crystallized into ice. . . . It is thus to be seen that the extrusion of water into the intercellular spaces is a protective device of the protoplasm."

PSYCHIC PECULIARITIES OF THE CRIMINAL.—"Intimately connected with the physical conditions of the criminal are his psychic peculiarities," says Helen Zimmern, in *Appleton's Popular Science Monthly* (April). "These consist chiefly in great instability of character, coupled with overwhelming development of some passion and the atrophy of some others. The criminal acts from impulse, altho he often displays, as madmen do, a low cunning in finding means to carry out his impulse. He is intensely vain, priding himself on the number of crimes he has committed. He is further devoid of all remorse, fond of boasting of his evil deeds and of describing them in detail. Thus Lombroso gives the reproduction of a photograph, in which three murderers who had assassinated one of their number caused themselves to be represented in the very act of committing their deadly deed, a photograph taken for the benefit of their less fortunate associates. This inordinate vanity is often in itself the primary cause of terrible crimes, especially in young men who have just attained puberty, an age observed to be especially fruitful in crimes of violence. The critical character of this period, even in well-balanced minds, is abundantly known; little wonder, then, if it prove fatal to those whose constitutions urge them to extremes. It is noticed also that the criminal needs to lead a life full of noise. The necessity of orgies entailed by the irregularities of his feelings is often the moving cause of some act of violence, such as robbery and assassination, calculated to procure the means of indulgence."

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THE RELIGIOUS WORLD.

IS DENOMINATIONALISM WRONG?

IN a recently published article Rev. Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst, of New York, takes the position that denominationalism is "false to Christianity." He makes the point that our "temperamental differences" to-day, which we regard as sufficient excuse for the division of Christendom, are not greater than those of the early Christians. "Indeed," says he, "contrariety of condition, temperament, and bias was one of the most characteristic features by which the apostolic twelve were distinguished; it seems as tho the Lord took pains to make the apostles as widely representative as possible. He appears to have brought together in them types of character that were as widely discrepant as were producible."

In farther reasoning along this line, Dr. Parkhurst says:

"There would have seemed to be an almost infinite possibility of conflict between the intuitive John and the skeptic Thomas; or between the spiritualizing John and the matter-of-fact James; or between the impetuous Peter and all his other more deliberate colleagues. But the point made for us by the easy way in which all these were held within the embrace of a single Christian fellowship, and could abide all of them, 'in one accord,' is that the mutual union of Christ's people is, in its essence, something which subsists entirely outside the jurisdiction of mental and temperamental proclivities. The accord, in which all these primitive disciples were able to continue with one another, had its grounds exclusively in the personal union of each disciple of Christ. It had to do with something far deeper than methods of thinking, philosophic standpoint, or doctrinal complexion. Individual tastes, particular ways of looking at things, distinctive modes of comprehending character, and characteristic methods of interpreting Christ's words, were felt by them to be so far off from the main line of concern that they had no effect to divide or disintegrate. There was to them just one engrossing reality, and that was their individual and vital relation to Jesus Christ; and so engrossing was that that no other consideration was able to count or to signify."

In a discussion of the issue thus raised *The Standard* (Baptist, Chicago) addresses itself to the particular question, whether by remaining divided the denominations are "most truly and obediently serving Christ." On this *The Standard* says:

"It would be an exceedingly difficult task to support an affirmative answer to this question. When we remember the appalling, disheartening failure of Christianity to meet the emergency presented by the rapid growth of great cities, in this country and abroad; the wasteful competition in home-mission work, the existence of which in some measure is not to be denied because of exaggerated reports; the difficulties of maintaining denominational distinctions in heathen lands without neutralizing the free, gracious winsomeness of the Gospel and its appeal to people unused to Western ecclesiastical councils and reformations; the vast amount of energy expended on denominational apologetic and polemic, which adds absolutely nothing to the total of Christian believers—such facts, which are ever before us, make it next to impossible to argue seriously that it is the will of Christ that His church shall be divided into hundreds of sects which differ, not in their allegiance to Him as Savior or their purpose to lead other men to His salvation, but merely in their views of church polity and ordinances, and their understanding of certain doctrines. Now this is a very different thing from saying that Christians must give up their peculiar views, surrender their 'temperamental differences' and conscientious principles, in order to obey Christ. For that is precisely what Peter and John and Paul and James did not do. Their only bond of unity—yet a most powerful and all-sufficient one—was their common allegiance to Christ.

"It appears to us that, desirable as is some sort of unity of Christendom, reformers are on the wrong tack when they propose compromise of creed or ritual or ordinance. To speak as Baptists, we find it impossible to see how we could advance the coming of the kingdom of God by surrendering our fundamental principle of regenerate church-membership, on which so much depends. In all fairness it should be said that the devout adherent of a state church finds it equally difficult to see how he could help the cause of unity by giving up what seems to him a grandly catholic conception of the church as coextensive with the nation. Not within centuries, at any rate, will two types of thought so essentially opposed be really reconciled. In other words, what we term 'organic' church unity, based on a complete statement of doctrine, is out of the question; and Dr. Parkhurst would be the last to say that in continuing to hold the right of private interpretation of Scripture and acceptance of doctrine the entire Christian world is defying his Lord. Not even in public worship can outward uniformity be secured; for Protestants—genuine Protestants—will never consent to regard the minister as a priest delegated by God to offer sacrifice for the people. What, then, is the practical outcome of the inquiry? It is that denominationalism is wrong wherever it interferes with the salvation of men and the spread of the kingdom of God; as it undoubtedly often does. It is not wrong in so far as it allows and encourages the more intimate cooperation of Christians whose ideas are most nearly allied; for Peter and Paul, tho they served the same Master, served him in very different ways, and seldom did the Pauline and the Petrine disciples arrive at complete harmony. Peter ministered to Jews; Paul to Gentiles; why not Congregationalists to the Armenians and Baptists to the Telugus? And why may we not have our 'councils at Jerusalem,' not merely to settle difficulties, but to exchange fraternal greetings and mutual encouragement? And why should we not have a closer cooperation where the need is most pressing for reinforcements—in city missions, and the thinly populated regions which are not likely to grow in future?"

THE FOUNDER OF CHRISTIAN SCIENCE.

THE question whether Mrs. Mary Baker Eddy is actually living or not was settled by an interviewer the other day, at least to the interviewer's satisfaction. "She is every inch alive," we are told, walks with buoyant step, talks with vivacity, and goes out riding every day, rain or shine. This question in regard to her living is, however, a persistent one, and having already been current for twenty-five years is not likely to die from a newspaper interview. It is an esoteric question, however, in which the death attributed to her does not mean such cessation of life as the word usually implies, but "mental assassination," for the meaning of which one must have recourse to a Christian Scientist skilled in the vernacular.

The interview to which we have referred was held by Kate McGuirk for *The World*, and is indorsed as accurate by Mrs. Eddy's friends and disciples. Mrs. Eddy lives, it seems, in "a large mansion capable of entertaining twenty-five guests at a time," which is located in Concord, N. H. It is "sumptuously furnished," and every room contains "unique and magnificent gifts which Mrs. Eddy has been unable to decline or return," made by those whom she has healed. Three pianos, an organ, and a large music book are to be found in the house. In addition to this home, Mrs. Eddy owns a residence on Commonwealth Avenue, in Boston, and a fine country residence in Roslindale. Her college has an annual income of $40,000, and she holds the copyrights on her nine books, which have a wide circulation. When she appeared to the interviewer, she was "quietly but elegantly dressed" in brocaded satin; the collar of her dress was clasped with "a diamond cross of eleven as superb white stones as are often found together," and she had on a jewel of the Daughters of the American Revolution, which was "thick with diamonds."

The following is an interesting extract from the interview:

"Why do you think you were chosen by God to discover and give Christian Science to the world?"

"I do not know, child." She was speaking in a very reverent tone now. "I do not know why I was chosen for so great a work. I have given up everything to carry out the Lord's purpose. I

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have given up society, and have never had time or room for devotion to anything but work. One can not lead two lives.

"Even when I was a child my life was different. There were strange things in it; strange things happened to my mother before my birth. Once a minister, a good old soul"—Mrs. Eddy's voice thrilled with earnestness and feeling—"held me to his side and told my mother she ought to consecrate me to God.

"When I was very little I used to hear voices. They called me. They spoke my name, 'Mary! Mary!' I used to go to my mother and say: 'Mother, did you call me? What do you want?' and she would say: 'No, child, I didn't call you.' Then I'd go away to play, but the voices would call again distinctly.

"There was a day when my cousin, whom I dearly loved, was playing with me when she too heard the voices. She said: 'Your mother's calling you, Mary,' and when I didn't go I could hear

MRS. MARY BAKER EDDY.

them again. But I knew that it wasn't mother. My cousin didn't know what to make of my behavior, because I was always an obedient child. 'Why, Mary,' she repeated, 'what do you mean by not going?'

"When she heard it again we went to my mother and my cousin said: 'Didn't you call Mary?' My mother asked if I had heard voices and I said I did. Then she asked my cousin if she had heard them, and when she said 'yes' my mother cried. She talked to me that night, and told me when I heard them again—no matter where I was—to say: 'What wouldst Thou, Lord? Here am I.' That is what Samuel said, you know, when the Lord called him.

"She told me not to be afraid, but surely answer.

"The next day I heard voices again, but I was too frightened to speak. I felt badly. Mother noticed it and asked me if I had heard the call again. When I said I was too frightened to say what she had told me to she talked with me and told me that next time I must surely answer and not fear.

"When the voice came again I was in bed. I answered as quickly as I could, as she had told me to do, and when I had spoken a curious lightness came over me. I remember it so well. It seemed to me I was being lifted off my little bed, and I put out my hands and caught its sides."

Mrs. Eddy illustrated the act instinctively. Her eyes and voice were trembling with emotion.

"From that time," she went on, "I never heard the voices. They ceased."

Here is another extract from the interview:

"What do you consider the future of the denomination?"

"At the present rate of increase I believe that in fifty years, aye less, Christian Science will be the dominant religious belief of the world, that it will have more adherents than any other denomination."

"Why are so many attracted to it?"

"My dear," she said, "they have received a great gift. They believe because they know. They themselves have been healed and have personal knowledge of the power of God as demonstrated by Christian Science. Now tell me, if you knew of a drug that was going to make you well all your life, wouldn't you lay in a large supply of it? Well, that is the way with Christian Science. Haven't I seen the dead return to life, the lame made to walk, and the wonderful power of God manifested in many ways?

"I wish you would read an article of mine in *The Christian Science Journal* in answer to a question why Christian Scientist take money for healing." Plainly Mrs. Eddy was deeply interested in having her reasons understood.

"I began by refusing money. I took none until I was at a standstill. I hardly had money for food. I had no money to engage halls for meetings, and halls are not gifts. I had no money to pay for publishing the teachings of science to carrying on the work. And that was what drove me first to it. But if you remember, Christ Himself first sent His disciples out with nothing. Afterward He bade them take scrip, saying: 'The laborer is worthy of his hire.'

"If I had taken one-tenth part of what grateful Christian Scientists would have given me I should have been more than rich. But I haven't. For myself I do not wish it. I do not want the element of personal worship to enter into Christian Science. I distinctly enjoin against it. But every religion requires money to spread it, and our people are liberal indeed. They give, as the Bible teaches, cheerfully."

A few years ago, according to the same *World* writer, Mrs. Eddy abolished the personal ministers of her churches, and installed in their places the "Bible and Book," and now on the cards of the churches (over three hundred in number) appears the following: "Pastor, 'the Bible, Science, and Health, with Key to the Scriptures.'" This is the book which Mrs. Eddy finished writing about twelve years ago. The services in her churches now consist, instead of a sermon, of the reading of a verse of the Bible, usually by a man, and the explanation from "Science and Health," by the second reader, usually a woman.

Mrs. Eddy has been thrice married. The statement that she is now living with her third husband (in LITERARY DIGEST, April 16) is not, we are informed, correct. Dr. Asa G. Eddy died in 1882.

Spain's Request for Papal Mediation.—The recent efforts of Pope Leo to settle the differences between Spain and the United States in a peaceable manner are made the text of an interesting letter from Rome by a correspondent of the New York *Freeman's Journal* (Roman Catholic), giving some details concerning the visit to Rome of His Eminence Cardinal Sanchez y Hervas, Archbishop of Valencia, who, prior to the destruction of the *Maine*, led a commission of Spanish notabilities and politicians to ask for the intercession of the Pope. The famous Pidal, who formed one of the number, when admitted to the papal audience, threw himself at the Pope's feet, exclaiming: "Peace, Your Holiness, peace, in the name of my country, ruined by the horrors of war." The correspondent continues:

"The proceeding was so unusual and in such violent conflict with Vatican etiquette that His Holiness seems to have been somewhat displeased, and the commission left the audience chamber with the belief that Leo XIII. would not intervene. Certain it is, anyway, that Pidal immediately telegraphed in this sense to Madrid. Shortly afterward, however, when receiving the Spanish Ambassador to the Holy See His Holiness introduced the subject.

"'Merry Del Val, the Cardinal of Valencia, brought Señor Pidal here.'

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"The Ambassador said nothing, and the Pope continued: 'Your Cuban business is not an easy one; the people there do not seem to have all the wrong on their side.'

"The Ambassador still kept silence, and His Holiness resumed:

"'It will be difficult to reestablish peace in the country. Do you think your country will succeed?'

"The Ambassador, thus put to the question, began to dilate on the strength of the Spanish nation, but His Holiness broke in:

"'Strength! Strength! Your strength has frequently been found insufficient to restore peace and order.'

"Then Merry Del Val said:

"'I would venture to add my prayer to those of my fellow countrymen for Your Holiness' intervention.'

"The Pope replied: 'If that be the case, ask instructions to that effect from Madrid.'

"A few days afterward the *Maine* disaster occurred, and with it the negotiations ended for the time."

THE ALLEGED PICTURE OF THE CRUCIFIXION.

THE now famous *graffitto*, or wall-scratching, recently discovered in Rome and at first thought by archeologists to be possibly a rude contemporary representation of the crucifixion, was described and illustrated in these columns a few weeks ago. According to an article by Dr. Albert Battandier in *Cosmos* (Paris, March 12), experts have now quite abandoned this view of the meaning of the picture, tho they are not yet agreed about what it does represent. After quoting the earlier theory of the Italian antiquarian Marucchi, already given in THE LITERARY DIGEST in the article to which reference has been made, Dr. Battandier goes on to say:

"We must confess that the impressions received at first sight have begun quickly to disappear. Other archeologists see quite differently, and M. Marucchi himself has become less positive, as the characters, having been washed repeatedly, come out more clearly. It is now impossible to defend the earliest explanations, and we are obliged to mourn the loss of a discovery that would have been valuable for many reasons, but useless for our Christian faith. The Gospels ought to suffice us.

"Let us speak first of the scene represented at the bottom of this series of *graffitte*. There are, in fact, a large number of inscriptions, one above the other, and we should be foolish to suppose that all must necessarily be on the same subject. We should observe first that the design is very rough; the part of it that is clearest represents perpendicular posts united by a transverse bar and forming a sort of portico, with ladders for mounting. Several of the persons represented have names written over their heads—for the most part, illegible ones. Thus we have Nostulus, Eulogius, Secundus, or better, Jocundus, and finally Pilatus, of which there remain only the syllables 'il' and 'tus.' Higher up, we find numerical signs.

"Now the explanations of this scene are as numerous as they are hypothetical.

"First of all, on account of a name that was thought to be 'Crestus,' at the beginning of the *graffitte*, it was regarded as a view of the crucifixion—this is what has given to the drawing its great notoriety and has already caused floods of ink to be shed on the question. Others have seen in it a naval maneuver; the posts are masts, only, unfortunately, there is neither ship nor sea. For others it is a mason's scaffolding, traced here as a kind of rough preliminary plan of the proposed manner of doing some piece of work; but this does not account for the drawings of people, and still less for the names written over their heads. Some archeologists find here the preparations for an exhibition of rope-walkers or acrobats, and in this case the figures would represent the principal actors with their names written over their heads. It is probable also that it may be a representation of some imaginary scene traced by soldiers with plenty of leisure and not strong on perspective, who occupied an idle hour in drawing a picture that had nothing real to correspond to it. Finally, to close this series of interpretations with a note of humor, some have thought this to represent the preparations for an exhibition of fireworks—as if powder had been invented at this epoch!

"Above the scene there are numerous inscriptions, and it has been noted already that these do not relate necessarily to the design placed below them. An attentive examination shows that most of the inscriptions are not fit for ears polite. Of the word supposed to be 'Christ,' there remain clearly only the letters CRE . . . S; a hole in the wall has caused the intermediate letters to disappear. . . . . .

"We see how the discovery of these famous *graffitti* that have created such excitement both at Rome and abroad appears at the present time. It would doubtless have been very interesting if the first version had been correct, but historical truth obliges us to confess that it was not."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE ACTION OF DR. SHIELDS.

PROF. CHARLES W. SHIELDS, for thirty years incumbent of the chair of the Harmony of Science and Revealed Religion in Princeton University, has also been confirmed in the Protestant Episcopal Church. A printed statement has been issued giving Professor Shields's reason for withdrawing from the Presbyterians and the various steps which attended it. He acknowledges that his differences with that denomination did not turn upon any "vital doctrine or principle worth fighting for, but a mere detail of policy which had been perversely associated with his name." He could not contemplate with patience, he says, the long, harassing, fruitless controversy in which he was likely to be involved, and in which he had no expectation of justice, for the tribunals to which he must submit had already defamed him without a hearing. He, therefore, took the steps provided by the Book of Discipline for withdrawal to an independent position. In his letter of withdrawal, he declared an intention to "enter some other portion of the visible catholic church, to which the good hand of God may guide me in due time."

In commenting on this action, *The Living Church* (Protestant Episcopal, Chicago) says:

"He [Professor Shields] gives an interpretation of confirmation which is new to us, and which we can not profess to understand, viz.: That his former church membership (Presbyterian) 'is recognized and reaffirmed in the office of confirmation as devoutly received and interpreted.' All this leaves something to desire in the way of positive conviction. It is impossible to feel enthusiastic over an occasion of this character, and we confess to a feeling of considerable anxiety over the addition to the church of a body of men, however learned and eminent, who follow the lines of Drs. Briggs and Shields. It is now reported that President Patton and his colleagues at Princeton are unsettled in their Presbyterian allegiance, and that they intend to absent themselves from the coming General Assembly."

The Christian Advocate (New York) devotes an editorial to the topic, "Messrs. Mill, Briggs, and Shields," in which it says, concerning the last named:

"The change of Professor Shields is really without significance. A number of years ago he wrote articles on Christian unity for a leading magazine, and read papers to societies, the logic of which would take him out of the Presbyterian into the Protestant Episcopal Church. He himself says: 'To the Protestant Episcopal Church I have been drawn by my studies, tastes, affinities, and most characteristic opinions.'

"*The Independent*, speaking of his departure, says: 'It is not to be understood, we suppose, that in going to the Episcopalians he accepts the Episcopal doctrine of church exclusivism.' Why not? Let it be understood whether persons can be confirmed in the Protestant Episcopal Church and admitted to its ministry who deny that doctrine. They could be fifty years ago, and were, in large numbers. Can they be now? If they can not, Professor Shields, as an honest man, must accept that doctrine. If they can be, what becomes of the interpretation of the Lambeth propositions of unity published by *The Independent* over the signature of most of the Protestant Episcopal bishops in this country? . . . . . .

His departure prior to the meeting of the General Assembly justifies *The Independent* in saying editorially, 'He has easily escaped probable and deserved censure.' What will be the effect of retaining him as a professor in Princeton University is a question of even more interest than that relating to Professor Briggs, for Princeton University will have to bear two burdens, the saloon license question and the repudiation of Presbyterianism."

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FOREIGN TOPICS.

EUROPE ON THE WAR.

AT the time of our going to press foreign exchanges commenting upon actual hostilities are yet wanting. Cabled comments have the appearance of having been chosen to suit the mood of the newspaper reader, and it is difficult to discover what effect the blockade of Havana, not to speak of the battle of Manila, has had in Spain. While the reports of scarcity in Havana are credited in this country, others which indicate that the island can support itself are circulated in Spain. While we are assured that the insurgents are anxious to cooperate with our forces, the Spanish are assured that influential rebels would rather help the Spaniards than accept American rule. Shortly before the beginning of the blockade the *Diario de la Marina*, Havana, announced that Gomez and Garcia were negotiating with the autonomist government, and that former rebels were being organized as auxiliary troops in the service of Spain. The *Imparcial*, Madrid, says:

"Poor and apparently weak countries have before this held their own against an enemy of great strength and wealth. We need not leave our own history to find proof of the fact. Holland succeeded in freeing herself from Spain in spite of enormous disadvantages. Again, Spain held her own against the French in the beginning of the present century. No country was stronger than Spain when Holland entered upon the Eighty Years' War, and who could cope with Napoleon when Spain resisted him? History may repeat itself."

In Spanish military circles it is thought that the army in Cuba will give a good account of itself, even if the Spanish fleet is beaten. Señor Moret, the colonial Minister, summed up the case of Spain in an interview for the Paris *Journal* as follows:

General Weyler's mode of warfare was censured in the United States, he was replaced by the gentle Blanco; an autonomous government was instituted, but the United States prevented its trial. The American consuls never ceased to encourage and assist the rebels and prevented them from accepting our proposals. The *Maine* was sent to encourage the rebellion and to show the insurgents that they had the protection of the United States. The Americans have only one aim: to rob us of Cuba, the island which we discovered and have colonized, and which has become a veritable part of Spain. Why do not the Americans agree to a plebiscite of the people, enabling them to choose the government they want?

The *Liberal*, Sagasta's paper, is the least hopeful. It thinks Europe ought to interfere for her own sake. This seems to be the opinion of the entire cabinet, and also of the opposition leaders. The *Echo*, Paris, publishes the following opinions of Señor Silvela:

We are determined to fight to the bitter end, but the Atlantic Ocean is wide and Cuba is rather far away for successful operations. If the powers are wise, they will intervene for their own sake. I hope a European congress will soon be called to discuss the question. England has chosen to take sides with the States, but she will soon discover the mistake she has made.

The attitude of the Spanish press is winning much respect for Spain. "A people always has the press it deserves," says the *Nieuws van den Dag*, Amsterdam; "the Spanish newspapers may not stand very high with regard to information, but their tone mirrors the manly spirit of a people that knows its faults, but knows how to remain calm in the hour of danger." The Amsterdam paper contrasts the patriotism of the Spaniard with the reported treatment of a negro regiment in the United States, to whom food and even water are supposed to have been refused by white Americans.

It appears that neutrality will be very strictly observed during this war. Even our sympathizers demand this. *The Westminster Gazette*, London, says:

"The neutrality must be strictly impartial. We are entitled to intervene, if we think right, and we are entitled to stand aloof; but we are not entitled, while standing aloof, to force points in favor of either of the belligerents, however much of our sympathy it may command. To return to the case of coal, we have no right to decide it on any such ground as that making it contraband will be to help the United States. Nor, having come to a decision at the outset, must we modify it afterward if we find that its result is, in its effects upon the combatants, different from what we anticipated. It is assumed at the moment that to make coal contraband will act unfavorably to Spain, who will be fighting far from her base. Yet, if the thing is fair, it ought to be done notwithstanding. But, if once done, it can not be changed hereafter, should the United States carry the war into European waters and desire to pick up coal from Portsmouth."

The *Journal des Débats*, Paris, declares that France will adhere strictly to the Treaty of Paris. The *Allgemeine Zeitung*, Munich, believes that the German people uphold the Government in its neutrality, and relates that both belligerents have been made to feel its force: the United States has been prevented from getting a cargo of saltpetre, the Spaniards must go without Westphalian coal.

The list of our sympathizers in Europe, tho not large, contains some influential journals. The *Handelsblad*, Amsterdam, expresses itself in the main as follows:

We in Europe have heard little or nothing about Cuba. But in the American papers the public have read day after day of massacres, of destruction, of famine, until the people began to be as angry as the Russians were before the last Russo-Turkish war. To the majority of American citizens this war is as much in the interest of humanity as was to the average Russian the war for the liberation of Bulgaria. We can not but honor the motive of these hundreds of thousands, tho we believe they did not realize the dangers of the war. But we must reckon with their passion, their anger, and must remember that mere financial interests could not have aroused them any more than the statesmen can now bridle them.

Liebknecht, the leader of the German Socialists, predicts that England, Japan, and the United States will form a triple alliance and dictate to the rest of the world. The *Frankfurter Zeitung* gives vivid descriptions of the misery in Cuba, and the *Matin*, Paris, censures Spain for having entered upon a war for nothing. "Spain might just as well have relinquished Cuba," says the paper. "With autonomy her suzerainty was merely nominal, and that is hardly worth fighting for." William T.

THE CUBAN TOPSY: "Xcuse me, boss, but what does yo' kalk'late to do wiv me when yo' has 'mancipated me?—*The World*, *Toronto*.

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Stead writes in the London *Review of Reviews* in the main as follows:

The intervention of the United States in Cuba heralds in the most unmistakable manner the beginning of a new chapter in the history of the New World. The great republic begins its first foreign war, and whatever may have been the nominal reason, it remains a war of conquest. Hesitatingly at first, a new power enters upon the stage, a maritime power of the second rank, but one that has all that is necessary to make her a first-class one. It is a second, improved edition of John Bull, with his trade, his ships, and his colonies. The rise of Japan is as nothing to it. Wo to England if she does not understand the signs of the times, if she does not bury the hatchet between the two great English-speaking nations.

There is, however, scarcely a paper outside of the United States willing to admit that the war could not have been prevented if Spain had been given a fair chance to try autonomy. *The Weekly Scotsman*, which ranges itself on our side on the principle that blood is thicker than water, thinks we came "perilously near putting Spain in the right." *The Catholic Weekly Register*, London, deplores that the United States, the country which has talked arbitration so long, rejects arbitration in a wholesale fashion. *The St. James's Gazette* thinks we have given the world an example "how not to do it," admits that "Spain is to some extent fighting the cause of Europe," and declares that the "billing and cooing and gush" of emotional Anglo-Saxons is anything but genuine. The Irish Nationalists think it may be genuine, and that makes them mad. *United Ireland*, Dublin, says:

"Intervention ceased to be justifiable when Spain consented to a scheme of autonomy sufficiently good to satisfy all but the rashest Separatists in Cuba—sufficiently good at all events to enable all serious Cubans to work their way to prosperity and ultimate freedom. America's justification for intervention ceases once Spain terminates her atrocities and gives home government to Cuba. . . . America as the arch-grabber, waiting for an opportunity to play the game of annexation, will evoke the indignation of all lovers of freedom and fair play, and the sorrow of all who lovingly regard the land of Washington as that where freedom has its home, where men are equal in the eyes of the law, and where the voice of the people is the *lex suprema*. . . . Our Irish-American friends should take note of the fact that the English people are in sympathy with the American side of the struggle, hoping by this means to secure the long looked-for arbitration treaty. That is an outcome of the struggle every friend of Ireland should view with dismay."

The Edinburgh *News* says "the Yankee is thirsting for blood. He will perhaps get more of it than he bargains for before he is done with the Cuban business." The Newcastle *Chronicle* admits that Spain is fighting for her own, whether she was successful in managing Cuba or not. The *Independance Belge*, Brussels, recapitulates everything Spain has done to satisfy the United States, from the first prisoners released while Campos was governor, to the armistice declared by Blanco, and asks how could any one declare the United States in the right? The *Kleine Journal*, Berlin, the nearest approach to a "yellow journal" which the Germans have, pictures President McKinley as a veritable Machiavelli, whose peaceful attitude was only a mask. Much attention is given to the *Maine* disaster. The Spanish official report, a voluminous document containing thirty-six drawings, is given the preference over that of our own commission. The *Vossische Zeitung*, Berlin, which admits that Spanish misrule in Cuba was enough to rouse our people, censures our battle-cry of "Remember the *Maine*," because we never gave the Spaniards a hearing or a chance to answer the charges. The *Corriere della Sera*, Milan, says:

"Why on earth did not the United States Government demand an arbitration tribunal if it is perfectly satisfied that Spain is to blame for the loss of the ship? Every one knows Spain is willing to submit the matter to impartial judges. Here we have two conflicting reports; an impartial commission would have satisfied the world. As it is, we are placed before an unsolved mystery. Why is that?"

Even *The Hawaian Gazette*, Honolulu, can not see how this matter could inspire us to war, supposing the vessel was blown up from the outside. "If A is visiting B's house, and is robbed at night of his watch by a burglar, is A responsible for the robbery?" asks that paper.

Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, one of our best friends in France, in his *Economiste Français*, expresses himself to the following effect in a long article:

If the Americans were honest, they would have given autonomy a fair chance. Spain could not leave the island at the dictates of the United States, her people would not stand it, no people would stand it. Even an unlucky war must strengthen the position of Spain. The struggle, however short, must do incalculable harm to the United States. When Spain is forced at last to quit Cuba, she does so with head erect, and her prestige will have much increased. The Americans, on the other hand, become responsible for the Cuban debt. If we consider in addition that this war is likely to unite all Spanish parties in a common cause, it must be admitted that the struggle is not an unmixed evil for Spain.

Money, London, a very keen financial paper, alludes to us as "humanitarian Yankees," and predicts that Spain will hold out a long time. Hence the war must seriously affect the money market. Marc Landry, on the other hand, combats in the *Figaro*, Paris, the idea that Spain could protract the struggle by privateering. Fast ships adapted for this purpose cost money, he thinks, and money is precisely what Spain has not. Sidney Low, in *The National Review*, ventures the opinion that Havana could be taken without great effort, but a French officer writing in the *Gaulois*, Paris, says it would take at least 100,000 Americans to conquer the Spaniards in Cuba. This seems to be the prevalent opinion in Europe, provided always that Spain continues the struggle to the bitter end.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

CONCERNING BOMBARDMENTS.

IF the chances of war should turn in favor of the Spaniard, in the Atlantic Ocean, the sudden descent of a hostile fleet upon our ports is regarded as by no means an impossibility. Most of these ports can not claim the immunity granted to defenseless towns, and the defenses of none of them are thought to be equal to the task of repelling a strong fleet. It is, therefore, of some importance to know how a bombardment would affect us. In an article in the *The Globe*, Toronto, it is asserted that a bombardment could not easily be resorted to. We quote as follows:

"International usage forbids the waging of war on non-combatants, and when for strategic reasons it is imperative that fire should be opened on a city, as when the forts at Alexandria were silenced, it is customary for twenty-four hours' notice to be given, so that non-combatants may be removed. What could the Spaniards gain? Ships lying at wharves might conceivably be seized by a superior naval force, and undefended ports might be entered by an enemy with the object of replenishing his coal supplies, but the laws of war forbid the plunder of the city, and the advantages to be gained would probably end there. Even should raids of this nature be made, there would be no bombardment unless the port were defended by guns placed right in front of the town.

"Even an unresisted bombardment would reduce the fighting value of the ship inflicting it. A modern war-ship carries a very limited supply of ammunition. One round for a twelve or thirteen-inch gun weighs something like half a ton. Many vessels do not carry more than forty or fifty rounds for each of their heavy guns. A shell from one of these heavy guns would produce a very bad explosion and probably start a fire, but it would not annihilate the town. A few hours of bombardment would perhaps burn down a good part of the town and kill a number of harmless people; but it would reduce the bombarder's supply of ammunition to a dangerously low point. . . . One further reason may be adduced for concluding that there will be little or no

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bombarding. The Spaniards are playing their cards so as to win the sympathy of Europe. Should they be guilty of the incredible inhumanity of laying waste defenseless cities, that sympathy would disappear and public opinion would condemn Spain as an international brigand. She will not risk such a loss of sympathy. Raids on American coast commerce we may expect, perhaps even cutting-out expeditions in undefended harbors, but not bombardments."

The *Figaro*, Paris, arrives at similar conclusions. Quoting from a book by General Desbordes, the paper expresses itself to the following effect:

If the inhabitants leave the city, little loss of life will result from a bombardment. The damage done to buildings does not justify the waste of ammunition it necessitates. The semi-panic said to have been caused in New York by the report that a Spanish fleet was crossing the Atlantic is therefore needless. It should be remembered that the Spanish ships would be short of coal when they arrive on the American coast, and would not keep long from their base of supplies. Bombardments would be undertaken on a small scale only, and for moral effect. The panic following a bombardment must always cause much damage unless the nation is guided by a firm hand.

Does international law permit a bombardment? The correspondence carried on between Bismarck and the Diplomatic Corps at Paris proves that protests would be of little value. The *Westliche Post*, St. Louis, quotes the correspondence carried on during the siege of the French capital. Want of space forbids its reproduction in full, but we summarize its most salient points. The diplomatic corps addressed Graf Bismarck to the following effect on January 13, 1871:

A large number of shells have fallen within the inhabited part of the city, injuring women, children, and invalids. Many of the victims are citizens of neutral states. We have not been informed that a bombardment was about to take place, and could not warn our citizens. We beg now that steps may be taken, in accordance with international laws, usages, and principles, for the better protection of neutrals, enabling them to place their persons and property in security. We sincerely hope that your excellency will use your influence with the military authorities to that effect.

Bismarck answered as follows, January 17:

"I am sorry that I can not admit that international law upholds you in your request. No doubt the siege of a fortress containing nearly 3,000,000 inhabitants creates much hardship. But the responsibility rests with those who made the capital a fortress and a battle-ground. People who take up their residence in such a place must be prepared for such hardships. Paris is the most important fortress of France, and her main forces are concentrated there. Hence there is no reason why the German generals should fail to attack the city. Secretary of State v. Thile has warned the ambassadors in Berlin, and I have myself warned the papal nuncio and other diplomatic agents in Paris. The population of Paris have had the disagreeable consequences of resistance pointed out to them. I have asked the American Ambassador to communicate my last warning, dated October 29, to the other members of the diplomatic corps. It was easy to see that we would have to bombard the city if resistance was continued. Vattel writes: 'To destroy a city by bombardment is a measure which should not be taken without weighty reasons. But the laws of war permit bombardment if the place can not otherwise be reduced or weakened.'

"We do not intend to destroy Paris as a city, but we wish to destroy the stronghold of the French army. Months before the bombardment we offered to pass through our lines neutrals who were in possession of passes signed by the diplomatic agents of their country. If we are not misinformed, the French authorities opposed their departure. If that is true, protests must be addressed to the persons now in power in France. Members of the diplomatic corps we will allow even now to pass through our lines; but your countrymen must remain until the city has capitulated. Even if it were not unwise from a military point of view to allow fifty thousand persons to leave the city, we could not grant your demand. We have neither provisions to feed them nor means of transportation to remove them with their property. The German artillery does not fire intentionally on buildings inhabited by women, children, and invalids. In no case can a people who have declared war against their neighbors be permitted to profit by the presence of neutrals, however innocent."

The ambassadors replied to the above January 23 in the following manner:

The warning alluded to by your excellency was not received by the American ambassador. We do not deny that German permission to leave the city was at first granted, and that the French authorities decided to make no use of it; but in November this permission was withdrawn by you. We do not deny that a fortified city may be bombarded, but we maintain that in any such event the city must be notified beforehand. We can now do nothing but submit this correspondence to our respective governments. We are, however, very sorry that the German military authorities can not in some way reconcile military expediency with the wish to mitigate the sufferings of civilians.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

AN ANGLO-GERMAN RAPPROCHEMENT?

CONSIDERABLE importance is attached to the apparent improvement in the relations between England and Germany. It began with the Emperor's telegram congratulating Sir Herbert Kitchener upon his victory at Atbara, and the British press regards this telegram as equally significant with the one in which William II. expressed his pleasure that the Transvaal had "repelled an invasion without need of foreign assistance." The London *Times* thinks there is much satisfaction to be gained from the fact that "the ruler of a civilized state expresses pleasure at this victory over the crudest barbarism." Mr. Balfour, who is now at the head of the British Foreign Office, declares that Germany and Great Britain have the same interests in the far East, and will work together. The London *Daily News* believes that this will also be the case in Egypt. The *Journal des Débats*, Paris, does not think a lasting friendship between England and Germany possible. The paper says:

"The political antagonism between the two nations will never subside. German competition is a danger to British commerce and industry, not only in the world at large, but within the confines of the United Kingdom. No other nation menaces Great Britain so much in this way. Germany's rise as a maritime and colonial power must also continue to arouse British discontent. It is this rise which caused the Emperor to protest against the violation of the Transvaal. . . . Mr. Balfour asserts that Great Britain and Germany will act together in the far East. But there is no official confirmation of this from Germany. We are more inclined to think that Germany merely wished to intimate that she is not against Great Britain.' The Emperor has personally changed his attitude toward England, but the antagonism between the two nations remains as before."

There is little doubt that the Germans as a people resent very strongly the imputation that they are ruled by an irresponsible sovereign whose course is distasteful to his subjects. The attacks of the Anglo-Saxon press throughout the world have aroused much bitterness, and much of the antipathy against America is due to the treatment accorded the Emperor by our newspapers. Comments like the following from *United Ireland*, tho by no means rare in papers published in the English language, could not be duplicated in any German publication throughout the world, Most's *Freiheit* alone excepted:

"The bouncing, notoriety-seeking, muddle-headed braggart who lords it over Germany and thinks himself a modern Cæsar, has again turned to licking the hand of England. His royal grandmother, whom somebody nicknamed a 'great foreign minister,' but who is really well versed in continental politics, because her relatives cling like barnacles to almost every court in Europe, has, no doubt, been giving the prancing Hohenzollern a bit of her mind, and the result is that he is now a sycophant of

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the English court, which not long since he denounced in all the moods and tenses. An inflated Englishman whose words carry no weight, but who thinks himself destined to lead cabinets by the noses, once in a rhetorical fit dubbed the Kaiser 'Chief Justice of Europe,' but his recent *volte face* and sudden prostration before England's might and influence makes him much more worthy the title of Europe's chief clown."

Such utterances cause many German papers to be dissatisfied even with a mere bit of courtesy extended to England, and the *Neuesten Nachrichten*, Berlin, endeavors to explain away the importance of the Emperor's telegram as follows:

"There will be little assent in Germany to the idea that the Emperor's telegram signifies German support for Britain's policy in Egypt. The message was in its larger part intended to congratulate the Khedive's troops upon their gallantry. Our interests in the far East are identical with those of Russia, and we have absolutely no reason to be pleased with British oppression of Egypt."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

ENGLAND'S VICTORY IN THE SUDAN.

WHILE we were rapidly approaching a war, our British cousins won a signal victory in a struggle for which preparations had been made for some years past. On Good Friday the British army in Egypt attacked the Dervishes under Mahmoud at Atbara. The position of the enemy was taken in a very short time, the Dervishes losing between 3,000 and 4,000 killed, and some 4,000 prisoners. The British losses were comparatively slight. This battle is thought to decide the war, altho the Sirdar, Sir Herbert Kitchener, does not intend to abandon that caution which has so far prevented the defeat encountered in the eighties. According to all accounts the Egyptian troops, trained by British officers, behave very creditably.

The Times, London, says:

"The chief immediate importance of the victory is that it will render fruitless any attempt on the part of the Calipha to disturb the steady progress of preparations for the final advance on Omdurman. . . . Meantime, nothing succeeds like success, and from all quarters congratulations are pouring in. Among the first to be received by our Government, we are pleased to note, was a very hearty one from the German Emperor, no doubt with the distinct purpose of intimating that in the Egyptian question his sympathies are with us. Nor is it too much to infer, from the courteous and complimentary language which he has employed, that in other spheres he believes there is room for the beneficent cooperation of Germany and Great Britain."

The Saturday Review, London, revives the old hope of an almost all-British Africa. It says:

"What is really going on between Uganda and Khartoum is one of those Central African mysteries which belong to that mysterious land. Certain it is, however, that the prestige of this overwhelming victory of the Atbara has been instantly and deeply felt in France. If the Anglo-Egyptian army can strike such a blow on the Atbara, with Kairo as its base, why may it not in the future strike just such another much further south, at the very equator, with Khartoum as a base? And that being done, what will there be to prevent the accomplishment of that *grande idée* of the Anglo-Saxon race—a pathway, which shall be from end to end under British control, from the Cape of Good Hope to the Mediterranean? . . . The German Emperor's telegram of congratulation on the Sirdar's victory in the Sudan is simply one of many recent symptoms of an anxious desire on the part of Germany to 'make it up' with England."

The Birmingham *Daily Gazette* says:

"The Kaiser's telegram is noteworthy and remarkable, but in a different sense from that famous message on the Jameson raid, flashed off two years ago, if indeed the latter could be said to be in any sense at all. It marks the culmination of that contrition which has since been going on in the imperial breast, that prompted a desire to attend the Jubilee celebrations, and the Cowes yacht-racing, and in other ways to win back the friendship, or at any rate the respect of the English people."

The German papers are not very pleased with the tone in which the English refer to the Emperor. The *Norddeutsche Allgemeine* says the telegram was a mere bit of courtesy. The *Kieler Zeitung* expresses itself, in the main, as follows:

It is a pity that no one can be civil to the English without leading them to think one is ready to make concessions. Britons ought to have learned by this time that British abuse and slights of the Emperor are not popular in Germany, and that inefficiently organized naval demonstrations do not produce the desired effect. The relations between Germany and Great Britain can not really improve until the people of the latter country learn that the Germans have no desire to earn British approval by subordinating their interests to the desires of the islanders.

In France the hope of the British that their victory over Dervishes is likely to cause the republic to abandon her African projects is mildly repulsed. "England," says the *Journal des Débats*, "has made a step in advance in the region she claims, on paper, as hers. If her victory assists in the international settlement regarding the Nile, she is to be congratulated."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

CANADA AND THE RESULTS OF THE WAR.

NOT a few of our Canadian contemporaries ask themselves whether speedy and easy victory on the part of the United States—an ultimate one is not doubted—would be an unmixed blessing for the Dominion. It is feared that we may start out upon a career of conquest, and that Canada would not be the last to feel our strength. In an article in the *Temps*, Ottawa, the writer says:

"Race affinity has been invoked to justify English preference for the cause of the United States, just as if the Americans were the same kind of people as at the time of the Revolution. As a matter of fact, our neighbors are as fine a collection of all sorts of races as may well be found. The Anglo-Saxon element is drowned in a mass of people gathered from every corner of the globe. . . . What was the use invoking the similitude of races in the Venezuela question, which is still unsettled and may flare up again through the Monroe doctrine? England will hear again of that Monroe doctrine for all she countenances American intervention for the independence of Cuba. A precedent has been created, and the United States will make the most of it if they are victorious in their present struggle. Is it not possible that we, who are neighbors of the United States and yet a British colony, may some day have to pay for the mistakes England makes?"

The Aylmer *Sun* expresses similar fears in the following:

"The actual feelings of five out of six Canadians are those of on-lookers who would be a little disappointed if their always cocky and self-assured neighbor were to be sweepingly successful from start to finish, and lord it over their Old-World foes as unmercifully as this additional evidence of their irresistible strength might dispose them to. The assurance and vainglory, scarcely restrainable now, would be unendurable then. If Canada has conflicting claims they might as well be given up, for they would never be recognized, and the young nation of the West would deem herself impregnable and unassailable. She would be arbiter of destinies in this hemisphere, and none might interfere."

The Herald, Montreal, while reckoning with the possibility of an annexation sentiment in the United States, thinks Canada could persuade her neighbor that she has no need of help against oppression. The paper says:

"On the other hand, Signor Crispi has been reported as expressing a belief that Canada's turn will follow that of Cuba, and that having forced Spain to resign her sphere of influence on this continent, attention will next be turned toward getting quit of England. Mr. Goldwin Smith, who forms his opinions on such matters

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at first hand and is therefore more to be regarded as an authority in this case than the Italian statesman, also hints very broadly at the same idea in his letter to the London *Speaker*. . . . Dr. Parkin, perhaps the foremost exponent in this country of the Imperial-Federation idea, remarked upon the same occasion, after some rather harsh comments upon the United States, that 'Canadians should not forget they live beside a nation that has said to another nation: "You have to get off this continent." They must also remember that they are a European power, and must recognize that the time may come when this fact will be brought home to every Canadian present.' . . . The fault is our own if we are regarded by the people of the great republic as occupying toward Great Britain the same relation that until now Cuba has borne to Spain. . . . Canada is no longer to be considered merely as an appanage of the British crown, but Canadians and English alike are to be hereafter regarded as equal citizens in an empire the like of which the world has never known."

In *Saturday Night*, Toronto, several columns are filled with effusions like the following:

"We do not care to be made to feel that only their Christianity and humanitarianism prevent the Yankee mob from making a light lunch of us. In the squares before the New York newspaper offices, where thousands read with swelling pride news of the capture of a wood-scow, one felt the strength of the terrible predatory instinct of a people who worship money, conquest, and an ability to crow as the owners of the earth. I admit that I was in a state of belligerency, and little as I care for Spain and her institutions I felt a prayer rising up from my heart to the great God of war, to the Lord of battles, to Him who supervises this universe, that in time, which sets all things even, the United States may be taught a lesson which it will never forget."

The Chatham, Ontario, *Banner* is inclined to think that Anglo-Saxons have nothing to fear from us, as this war is chiefly one against the Latin race, in which the Saxon is predestined to win. It says:

"Had it not been for England the United States would have been humiliated at the very outset by the continental states of Europe. Even now, unless Britain is prepared to draw her sword in favor of her ofttimes ungrateful daughter, she may be drawn up very unceremoniously by those continental states.

"There is undoubted irritation at England for taking the stand that she considered best, and the expression of opinion in France, Austria, and even in Germany and Russia, is such as to indicate that these countries would be glad to lend a hand to Spain in her unequal conflict. . . . . .

"The Spanish republics of South America are decidedly in sympathy with Spain, and while perhaps of necessity remaining neutral, will in every possible way render aid and comfort to the mother country. Mexico is manifesting a decided interest in the conflict. All these countries appear to be really standing with their hands on their swords, ready to draw them in favor of Spain, but 'The Lion of the North' is the influence which prevents action. . . . The conflict over Cuba may have consequences reaching far beyond what at first seemed within the bounds of probability, and it may lead to so close a union of the English-speaking races that it will affect the destinies of the world."

In view of the fact that great American victories are inevitable, the paper thinks the padding of war news unnecessary and harmful.

The Globe, Toronto, hopes the United States will not be railroaded into landing troops in Cuba, at least not before the Spanish fleet has been destroyed. The Manitoba *Free Press* thinks the Spanish fleet can not do much harm. It says:

"Among English experts the opinion is that the navies should be as three Spanish ships to two American to be on anything like terms of equality. As coal is contraband of war, the Spanish fleet will be at a great disadvantage, as it will be unable to coal at any port on this side of the Atlantic, and there is not a ship in the navy that can steam with her own supply from Cadiz to New York and back. Spain may decide on a policy of dodging, which would prolong the war, but in the mean time the United States would be landing troops in Cuba, and the object of the war might thus be accomplished before a ship's gun was fired. There is no help for it; Spain is about to lose Cuba, which means also Porto Rico, and to be driven from the American continent; perhaps that is thought to be better than a revolution which would bring in the Carlists or a republic."

Prof. Goldwin Smith, too, thinks that Spain has little chance, and he ventures the following prophecy in *The Weekly Sun*, Toronto:

"The Americans will probably take Cuba and Porto Rico. They may possibly take the Philippines, not with a view of annexing them, but of holding them as a pledge for the payment of a war indemnity. At this point the powers friendly to Spain will probably step in, tell her that she has done enough for her honor, that Cuba can not possibly be reconquered, and that they will use their best endeavors to procure for her fair terms of peace."

The Daily Witness, Montreal, touching upon the dictates of international law, says:

"Their binding effect is derived altogether from the consent of the nations, including the moral weight of public opinion, which is influential in proportion to the degree of civilization reached by such nations and upon the power of each nation to enforce their observance in its own behalf on other nations. . . . . .

"Some of the best results of these laws are to make non-combatants safe, to secure private property, and even public properties, such as churches, museums, libraries, art galleries, to prevent in some degree pillage and crime, which are apt to follow in the wake of armies, and to make as easy as possible all efforts to end the war emanating from one side or the other by means of truces, armistices, and so forth. But by far the greater section of international law regarding war is composed of the rules governing the rights and duties of neutral nations. . . . Neutrals must not allow within their jurisdiction the fitting out of an army, equipping of vessels to cease or carry on war on behalf of either belligerent; must not suffer either belligerent to use its ports or waters as a basis for war, and must prevent its subjects or citizens from violating like obligations and duties."

The Toronto *World* thinks Uncle Sam shows that war is a game he doesn't understand, compares the capture of merchant vessels which left port before the outbreak of hostilities to sheep-killing, and thinks that "the big policeman who is going to club the newsboy" must find the boy himself, as the latter is under no obligation to put himself within reach of the club. The paper adds:

"The world is not going to allow a full-grown man to call for odds in a contest with a stripling. If there is to be any odds it must be in the boy's favor. It is the United States that ought to cross the ocean instead of Spain. The former has undertaken the duty of regulating its neighbors. It must therefore proceed to perform its self-imposed duty in a manner becoming its dignity as guardian of the law. Furthermore, the contest is an unequal one, and Uncle Sam, instead of demanding the choice of position, ought to be ordered to give it to his puny adversary. . . . The world does not desire and will not tolerate a prolonged nuisance. Uncle Sam must do the job up clean and neat, otherwise he will fall into disrepute and will himself have to be regulated. Uncle Sam must never forget these two facts, viz., that the duty he has undertaken to perform is a self-imposed one, and that he is as a man fighting a boy. There ought to be no more prize-hunting and sheep-killing. Let Uncle Sam go out and arrest his prisoner with all the dignity and humanity that a full-grown man should exhibit toward a mere boy. For let it not be forgotten that the entire American press is glorying in the fact that such a disparity does exist between the two countries."

The Advertiser, London, Ontario, wonders whether those who wanted the war realized that Uncle Sam now must take up a collection from the taxpayers. The *Patrie*, Montreal, thinks that, whatever may be said on either side, intervention was necessary. It says:

"The Cubans have repeatedly revolted, yet Spain has refused to do them justice. We in Canada had but one measly insurrection, and we got the liberties we wanted. If the United States had not interfered, the Cuban rebellion would have continued indefinitely. The Spaniards themselves fought the Romans for two centuries and the Moors for seven. The Cubans, themselves of Spanish origin, have a still more perfect idea of liberty. How can the Spaniards expect them to give in?"—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

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BUSINESS SITUATION.

The American victory at Manila has had an appreciably quieting effect on the somewhat perturbed state of the speculative markets. "One day's work by the officers and men at Manila," says *Dun's Review*, "has given many days' work to thousands of people at home of whom they knew nothing, and has placed all American industries and interests on a stronger footing for any conceivable future. Millions living, as well as millions not yet born, owe to them a debt."

Perhaps the most noticeable feature of business during the past week has been the sharp, almost phenomenal advance in wheat, $1.70 having been touched in Chicago last week. Bread riots of a serious nature throughout Italy and Spain indicate forcibly the intimate relation and interdependence of the world's markets. Money was easier in tone, and stocks advanced slightly.

Bank Clearings.—"April bank clearings reflect the general dulness and depression due to uncertainty as to the outcome of our complications with Spain in a total of $4,962,217, 11.8 per cent. smaller than March, 10 per cent. smaller than February, and nearly 17 per cent., or $1,000,000,000, smaller than those of January, which marked the heaviest monthly total on record. Compared with April a year ago, however, the showing is a much better one, the total clearings in April this year exceeding those of 1889 by 21 per cent., while they were 33 per cent. larger than April, 1894, and 50 per cent. larger than April, 1893, while the decrease as compared with 1892 was only 2 per cent."—*Bradstreet's*, *May 7*.

Railroad Earnings.—"The railroads report better earnings by 17.5 per cent. for April than last year, and 11 per cent. better than in 1892. Eastbound tonnage from Chicago was over 50 per cent. larger than last year and 14 per cent. larger than in 1892."—*Dun's Review*, *May 7*.

Failures.—"Failures in April, in spite of expectations of war, and during the last ten days' actual war, have been smaller than in the same month for four previous years, and the details by branches of business given to-day show that the improvement is general. Failures for the week have been 238 in the United States, against 221 last year, and 25 in Canada against 36 last year."—*Dun's Review*, *May 7*.

The Cereal Market.—"Wheat exports for the week reflect the temporary check to demand caused by sudden advances in price and show a falling-off, aggregating 2,478,775 bushels, against 4,449,000 bushels last week, 1,799,000 bushels in this week a year ago, 1,882,000 bushels in 1896, and 2,805,000 bushels in 1895. Corn exports are larger than in any week for more than a year past, aggregating 6,164,000 bushels, against 4,216,000 bushels last week, 3,127,000 bushels in this week a year ago, 1,891,000 bushels in 1896, and 934,000 bushels in 1895."—*Bradstreet's*, *May 7*.

Canadian Trade.—"Canadian trade advices are cheerful. At Toronto business is active in nearly all lines, but particularly so in hardware and metals, owing to the big demand for building purposes. In the Northwest 20 per cent. more land is reported in wheat this year than last. Potatoes are higher on sales to New York. Stocks are higher and fairly good prices are reported for wool. The opening of navigation has stimulated business at Montreal, and general trade is of a large and steady volume. A feature of the week has been the arrival of new fruit from the Mediterranean. Collections are satisfactory and prospects are bright. At Victoria jobbers are busy on Alaskan outfitting and collections have improved. The weather has been poor in the maritime provinces and checked the merchandise movement to some extent. Business failures this week number 22, identical in number with those a week ago, but comparing with 39 in the corresponding week of 1897, 38 in 1896, and 27 in 1895. Bank clearings for the week aggregate $26,258,000, nearly 7 per cent. larger than last week and nearly 21 per cent. larger than in this week a year ago."—*Bradstreet's*, *May 7*.

PERSONALS.

COMMODORE GEORGE DEWEY, who has just won, at Manila, what has already been called the greatest naval victory since Trafalgar, is an old naval warrior. He received his baptism of fire on the old steam sloop *Mississippi*, under Farragut, in the early days of the civil war. The hottest fight the *Mississippi* ever engaged in was in March, 1863, when the fleet tried to run by the Confederate batteries at Port Hudson.

Some of the ships got as far as a narrow part of the channel, where they met land batteries almost muzzle to muzzle, and then they were forced to retreat. The *Mississippi* did not get as far as this. A foggy day had been chosen for the attempt, and this was soon made more obscure by the smoke of battle, and amid this the *Mississippi* lost her bearings and ran ashore.

Her officers found that she had struck just under the guns of a battery in the middle of the line of fortifications and one of the strongest of the lot. In half an hour 250 shots struck the vessel and she was riddled from end to end. There was no

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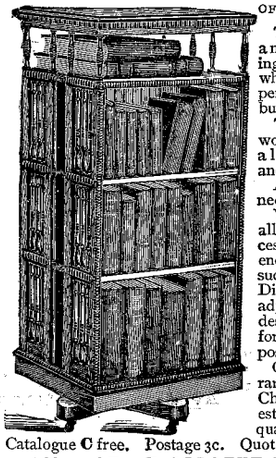

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chance to hold her, and the crew took to their boats and landed on the opposite side of the river, after setting her on fire. Soon lightened by the loss of the crew and by the fire, she drifted off, and, blazing and saluting with bursting shells, she drifted down the river, until finally the fire reached her magazines, and her career was ended in one great explosion.

Dewey became commodore in February, 1896. He was put in command of the Asiatic squadron last January.

AN EDISON STORY.—Perhaps inventor Edison belongs to a "Don't Worry" club. At any rate, he never worries. Nor does he ever seem to become discouraged. His associates claim that this composure comes from the fact that he has absolutely no nerves. This would seem to be partially true, if we may believe the author of an anecdotal biography of the great inventor (in *The Ladies' Home Journal*). Says this writer:

Recently one of his associates had to report to him the failure, in immediate succession, of three experiments involving enormous expenditure of money and labor. But the inventor simply smiled at the recital. The associate, worn out with the nervous strain of his long watch, and disheartened by his disappointment, said impatiently: "Why don't you worry a little about it, Mr. Edison?"

"Why should I?" was the inventor's reply. "You're worrying enough for two."

Current Events.

Monday, May 2.

The President decides to postpone the **invasion of Cuba** until the location of the Spanish flying squadron has been definitely ascertained. . . . Washington has not yet received official received official report from **Commodore Dewey**. . . . The monthly statement of the **public debt** shows an increase of $9,716,301. . . . The Cramps make a contract to build **two war-ships for Russia**. . . . Congress — Senate: The **emergency appropriation** of more than $35,000,000 asked by Secretary Alger is voted without debate. House: The war emergency appropriation bill is passed.

A despatch from Hongkong says that **Commodore Dewey's fleet** is engaged with the Corregidor Island force at Manila. . . . Report from Madrid states that Cavité has been razed and the unfortified **part of Manila burned**. . . . **Cable communication** with Manila is interrupted. . . . All reports show complete **annihilation of the Spanish fleet**. The Madrid populace are **rioting**, and the ministry is in danger. . . . Several persons are killed by the police and soldiers during **bread riots** in various parts of Italy.

Tuesday, May 3.

The navy and war departments are preparing to send ships and troops **to reinforce Dewey** whenever he calls for them. . . . Secretary Gage appears before the Senate finance committee to urge **a bond issue**. . . . Theodore Roosevelt's "**rough riders**" **regiment** is being rapidly organized in the Southwest. . . . Six of the colonels in command at Chickamauga camp are promoted to be **brigadier-generals**. . . . **Major-General Shafter** is assigned to the command at Tampa. . . . It is reported from Washington that the **British Ambassador**, Sir Julian Pauncefote, is to be succeeded by Sir Thomas H. Sanderson, Permanent Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. . . . A resolution is introduced in Congress **to promote Commodore Dewey** to the rank of admiral.

It is reckoned that the **Manila cable was cut** at ten o'clock Monday morning, London time. . . . The Spanish Government received the report that the **bombardment of Manila** had been begun before the cable was cut. . . . The *Marblehead* brings into Key West a **Spanish steamer**, *Argonauta*, **captured** off Cienfuegos. . . . **China** issues a proclamation of neutrality. . . . **Turkey** also declares that she will be neutral.

Wednesday, May 4.

The Administration charters **transports at San Francisco**, and orders troops to concentrate there to be forwarded to Commodore Dewey.

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President McKinley sends to the Senate the nominations of **eleven major-generals,** including James H. Wilson, of Delaware, Fitzhugh Lee, of Virginia, Wm. J. Sewell, Senator from New Jersey, and Joseph Wheeler, of Alabama, and twenty-six brigadier-generals, to the Senate. These nominations are promptly confirmed. . . . The twenty-fifth anniversary of **Archbishop Corrigan's** episcopacy is celebrated in this city. . . . The Secretary of the Navy sends to the House **a deficiency estimate** of $20,975,500 for the remainder of the present fiscal year and on account of the fiscal year 1899. . . . Congress—Senate: A resolution proposing **a constitutional amendment** regulating the succession to the Presidency is adopted after Mr. Mills income-tax amendment had been voted down.

The **blockade of Cuban ports** is maintained by the smaller cruisers, Admiral Sampson's fleet of fighting ships sailing for Key West. . . . Reports indicate that **Havana is on the verge of famine.** . . . **Riots** occur in various parts of Spain. . . . Madrid is declared in **a state of siege.** . . . It is reported that President Dole, of Hawaii, has offered President McKinley to transfer **the Hawaiian Islands** to the United States for war purposes.

Thursday, May 5.

No report yet received from **Commodore Dewey,** but no anxiety is felt as to his safety. . . . An extraordinary **rise in wheat** occurs in the Chicago market, May prices reaching **$1.50.** . . . Congress—Senate: A bill authorizing the President to supply **war munitions to the Cubans** is passed. . . . The post-office appropriation bill is considered. The conference report on the **Alaska homestead bill** is passed. . . . Representative Newlands, of Nevada, introduces a **Hawaian annexation** resolution.

The tugboat *Leyland* lands a large quantity of **ammunition for the insurgents** on the Cuban coast. . . . **Bread riots** continue in Spain. . . . The Cortes agrees **to reduce the customs duties** on corn. . . . **The Cuban congress** is opened by General Bianco.

The revenue cutter *McCulloch* arrives at Hongkong bringing the first official news of **Admiral Dewey's victory.** The defeat of the Spanish fleet is overwhelming, 300 Spaniards being killed, and 400 injured, while on our side there was not one killed, and only eleven hurt. None of the American ships was injured. . . .

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Friday, May 6.

The War department issues an order organizing the regular and volunteer forces into **seven army corps.** . . . **Theodore Roosevelt** is sworn into the service as a lieutenant-colonel of volunteers. . . . The Senate passes a bill authorizing an increase in the forces of **army surgeons.**

The **French liner** *Lafayette,* while attempting to run the blockade at Havana, is captured by the *Annapolis,* but afterwards released by orders from Washington, and escorted to Havana. . . . The Queen Regent of Spain has made another appeal to the Emperor Francis Joseph to bring about **intervention of the powers.** . . . She declares she will not abdicate. . . . The session of the **German Reichstag closes** in Berlin.

Saturday, May 7.

Commodore Dewey's official report is received at Washington. He announces the complete destruction of the Spanish fleet and fortifications, with more than 800 killed and wounded on the Spanish side, and no American loss in either men or vessels. Six American sailors were injured. He can take the city of Manila at any time. The **cable was cut** by him because the Spaniards refused to transmit American despatches. . . . President McKinley sends the thanks of the **American people to Commodore Dewey,** and appoints him acting Admiral. . . . Preparations were made at San Francisco to send supplies and **men to Manila.** . . . **Captain A. T. Mahan** joins the Naval Strategy Board. . . . Congressman B. B. Odell, of Newburg, is elected Chairman of the **New York Republican state committee** to succeed the late Charles W. Hackett. . . . The American schooner *Ann Lockwood* is **captured by the Spaniards** off Mole St. Nicholas. . . . The *Montgomery* **captures two Spanish vessels** in Cuban waters.

Bread riots continue in a number of Italian cities. **Disorder** continues **in Spain,** and an attack is made on the Queen Regent and King by a Carlist deputy. . . . **China pays Japan** the balance of the war indemnity.

Sunday, May 8.

A spy in the Spanish service is captured in Washington. . . . The plans **for invading Cuba** are perfected at Tampa. . . . **General Stewart L. Woodford,** United States Minister to Spain, arrives from Paris. . . . The *McCulloch* leaves Hongkong on her return to Manila. . . . **A disastrous flood** occurs in the Kansas valley, causing much destruction of property. . . . Three hundred persons are killed, and 1,000 wounded in **bread riots** in Italian cities. . . . Riots continue in Spain, and **martial law** is declared at Badajos and Alicante.

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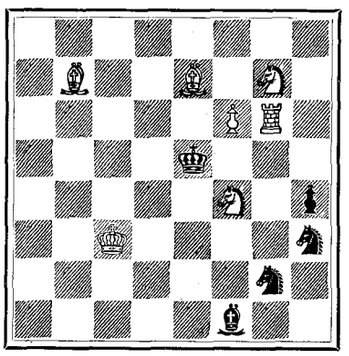
Problem 282.

BY B. G. LAWS.

Black—Five Pieces.



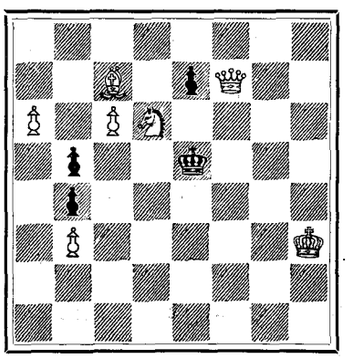
White—Seven Pieces.

White mates in two moves.

Problem 283.

BY DR. A. MUSIL.

Black—Four Pieces.



White—Seven Pieces.

White mates in three moves.

Solution of Problems.

No. 276.

Key-move P—Q 8 (Kt).

Solution received from M. W. H., University of Virginia; H. W. Barry, Boston; The Rev. I. W. Bieber, Bethlehem, Pa.; W. G. Donnan, Independence, Ia.; Dr. R. J. Moore, Riverton, Ala.; C. W. C., Pittsburg, Pa.; A. R. Hann, Denton, Tex.; C. R. Oldham, Moundsville, W. Va.; F. H. Johnston, Elizabeth City, N. C.; C. Q. De France, Lincoln, Neb.; F. S. Ferguson, Birmingham, Ala.; E. E. Whitford, Factoryville, Pa.; H. B. Munson, Hartford, Conn.; Dr. Fannin, Hackett, Ark.; Dr. Mueller, Jasper, Ind.; Mark Stivers, Bluefields, W. Va.; R. L. P., Sing Sing, N. Y.

Comments: "A quaint device, but not much of a problem"—M. W. H. "It would seem that the same idea could have been illustrated without such expenditure of force"—H. W. B. "A clever piece of Knight-errantry"—J. W. B. "Triplets in Knights"—Dr. M. "Quite unique"—C. W. C. "A cute little skit, showing how much more powerful a Kt is than a Q would be in the same position"—C. Q. De F. "A curious problem, indeed"—F. S. F.

CONCERNING NO. 277.

There seems to be two solutions of this problem; as the Chess Editor is ill and cannot decide the matter, the solution is held over for one week.

H. W. Barry sent solutions of 274 and 275; Mark Stivers, A. R. Hann, R. M. Campbell, Cameron, Tex., Z. T. Merrill, Milwaukee, got 274.

The Problem Tournament.

A number of problems have been received, not as many, however, as we hoped for. We have extended the time for the reception of problems until June 1. As soon as possible after that date, the four problems adjudged the best, will be published. Mr. Walter Pulitzer, the distinguished problematist, has very kindly consented to act as the Judge, and will award the prizes according to the merit of the compositions.

The Correspondence Tourney.

There are several games of the first round which have not been reported. We earnestly request all players having unfinished games to report to us at once. It is quite probable that the winners in the various sections can at once begin the final games. It has been thought best that, in the finals, each player shall play, simultaneously, two games with every other player.

The Vienna Tournament.

The great International Tournament begins on June 1. At the present time the following players have entered, representing six countries:

America—Steinitz and D. G. Baird.
England—Blackburne, Burn, Caro, and Mason.
France—Janowski.
Germany—Tarrasch, Lipke, and Walbrodt.
Hungary—Charousek and Maroczy.
Austria—Marco and Schlechter.

The Chess-world will be greatly disappointed if the two champions, Lasker and Pillsbury, are not included in the list. Up to this time it is not known whether Pillsbury will be able to get away. The Vienna committee has again extended the time for him. Barry, the Boston champion, would have been accepted as a contestant, but he could not be away for so long a time.

The first International Tournament was played at Vienna in 1873, when Steinitz won the first prize after a tie match with Blackburne. Anderssen won the third prize and Rosenthal was placed fourth. Next came Bird, Paulsen, Fleissig, Meitner, Gelbfuhs, Heral, Schwartz, and Pitschel in the order named. Kolisch did not play in this contest, but in 1867 at Paris, where he won the first prize. Winawer was second and Steinitz third on this occasion. This was the last International Tournament in which Kolisch played.

The United States Championship Match.

EIGHTH GAME.

Ruy Lopez.

	SHOWALTER. *White.*	PILLSBURY. *Black.*		SHOWALTER. *White.*	PILLSBURY. *Black.*
1	P—K 4	P—K 4	22	B—Q 4	Q—Q 2
2	Kt—K B 3	Kt—Q B 3	23	Q-Kt 5 (h)	Q—K sq
3	B—Kt 5	Kt—B 3	24	P—K 6 (i)	P—B 3
4	P—Q 4 (a)	P x P	25	B x B P	R x B
5	Castles	B—K 2	26	P—K 7	R—Q 2 (k)
6	Kt x P	Castles	27	B—R 5	Q x P
7	Kt-Q B 3	P—Q R 3	28	R x Q	R x R
8	B—K 2	P—Q 3	29	B—B 3	P—Kt 4
9	KtxKt (b)	P x Kt	30	P—K Kt 4	B—K 6
10	P—B 4	P—Q 4	31	Q—R 4	P—R 3
11	P—K 5	B—B 4 ch	32	Q—Kt 3	P—Q 5
12	K—R sq	Kt—Q 2 (c)	33	Q-Kt 8 ch	K—R 2 (l)
13	P-Q Kt 3	R—K sq	34	Q—Q 8	R (K 2)-K B 2
14	B—Kt 2	B—B 2 (d)	35	K—Kt 2	P—B 4
15	Q—Q 2	R—K 3 (e)	36	B x B	R x B
16	Kt—R 4	R—R 3	37	Q—Q 5	R—Q B 2
17	P—Kt 3	Q—K 2	38	Q—K 5	R (B 2)—B 3
18	Q R-K sq	Kt—Kt 3	39	P—K R 4	P—B 5
19	Kt x Kt	P x Kt (f)	40	P-Kt 4 (m)	R (Q B 3)-Q 3
20	P—B 5	B—Kt 2	41	R—K R sq	K—Kt sq
21	B—K B 3	R—Q sq (g)	42	P-Kt 5 (n)	Resigns.

Notes (abridged) by Emil Kemeny in The Ledger, Philadelphia.

(a) The usual play is: 4 Castles, Kt x P; 5 P—Q 4, B—K 2; 6 Q—K 2, Kt—Q 3; 7 B x Kt, Kt P x B; 8 P x P, Kt—Kt 2, which establishes the Berlin Defense. Pillsbury, however, invariably selected the 5 .., Kt—Q 3 defense, which leads to the following continuation: 6 B x Kt, Q P x B; 7 P x P, Kt—B 4; 8 Q x Q ch, K x Q. This variation was not altogether satisfactory to Showalter, who, consequently, abandoned the Ruy Lopez, playing the Q P opening. In the present game he returns to his favorite opening, somewhat transposing the moves.

(b) Black having moved P—Q R 3 and P—Q 3, the defense resembles somewhat the one adopted by Steinitz against Lasker. The present position is, perhaps, more favorable to White, inasmuch as he can maintain the two Bishops.

(c) Much better than Kt—K sq, in which case P—B 5 would give White a decided advantage.

(d) Better, perhaps, was B—Kt 2, so as to be enabled to move P—B 3, which at present can not be played on account of Kt x Q P, followed eventually by Q x P ch and Q x R.

(e) R—K 3, R—R 3, with the intention to play R x P ch and Q—R 5 mate, is somewhat premature.

(f) Black's Pawns on the Queen's wing were rather weak, and, unless he played P x Kt, he was bound to have the disadvantage in the end game. The text-play, nevertheless, was inferior to B x Kt.

(g) With the intention to continue P—B 4. He, however, has no time for it. White answers B—Q 4 at once, threatening B—K 3.

(h) He might have played B—K 3 at once, which was certain to win the exchange. White could not save the game by answering Q x P.

(i) A brilliant move, which in connection with B x P and P—K 7 gives White a winning game.

(k) There was no better play.

(l) He could not well play play R—B sq, for then Q—Q 6 would follow, and Black's game becomes hopeless.

(m) White could not well play R—K R sq at once, for P x P, followed by R—B 7 ch, would give his opponent some chances of escape.

(n) The decisive stroke, which causes Black to surrender. He can not save the Rook.

NINTH GAME.

	PILLSBURY. *White.*	SHOWALTER. *Black.*		PILLSBURY. *White.*	SHOWALTER. *Black.*
1	P—Q 4	P—Q 4	25	B x Q Kt P	R—R 2
2	P—Q B 4	P—K 3	26	Kt x Kt	Q x Kt
3	Kt-Q B 3	Kt—K B 3	27	B—K 4	R (R 2)—Q 2
4	B—Kt 5	B—K 2	28	P—R 3	Q x Q
5	P—K 3	Q Kt—Q 2	29	P x Q	R—Q 8 (f)
6	Kt—B 3	Castles	30	R x R	R x R ch
7	B-Q 3 (a)	P x P (b)	31	K—R 2	P—B 4 (g)
8	B x P	P—B 4	32	B—Kt 7	K—B 3 (g)
9	Q R B sq	P—Q R 3	33	P—Q B 4	R—Q B 8
10	P—Q R 4	Kt—Kt 3	34	R x B (i)	P x R
11	B—R 2	P x P	35	P x P	R—Q R 8 (k)
12	P x P	Kt (B 3)-Q 4	36	P—R 6	K—K 2
13	B x B	Q x B	37	P—Kt 6	K—Q 3
14	P—R 5	Kt x Kt	38	P—R 7	K—B 4
15	R x Kt	Kt—Q 4	39	P-R 8 (Q)	R x Q
16	R—B 5	B—Q 2	40	B x R	K x P
17	Castles	B—Kt 4 (c)	41	K—Kt 3	P—K 4
18	R—K sq	Kt—Kt 5	42	B—Q 5	P—R 3
19	B—Kt sq	K R—Q sq	43	B—B 7	P—Kt 4
20	Q—Kt 3	Kt—B 3	44	B—Kt 6	P—B 5 ch
21	Q—B 2	P—K Kt 3	45	K—B 3	K—B 4
22	Q—B 3	Q—B 3 (d)	46	K—K 4	K—Q 3
23	B—K 4	Kt x P (e)	47	B—B 5	P—R 4
24	K—R sq	K—Kt 2	48	B-Kt 6 (l)	Resigns

Notes (abridged) by Emil Kemeny, in The Ledger, Philadelphia.

(a) In the fifth game of the match Pillsbury played P x P, followed by B—Q 3. The play is quite ingenious, but it has the disadvantage of giving the Black Q B a quick development. R—Q B sq or B—Q 3, as played in the present game, seems preferable.

(b) Identically the same moves were played in the cable match befween Burn and Showalter.

(c) Black's game is not endangered, yet the defense is not an easy one. Better, perhaps, was Q R—B sq, followed by exchange of Rooks.

(d) Better, perhaps, was Q—Q 3. The move selected has the disadvantage of preventing Black from moving the Kt after Kt x P has been played.

(e) Much better was R x Kt. Black then could double Rooks on the Queen's file.

(f) Black's game looks satisfactory, yet there is some danger.

(g) R—Q 3, followed by B—Q 2, K B 3 and K—K 2, would have given Black a pretty safe game, and there was hardly any chance for White to break through.

(h) Black still had the R—Q 3, followed eventually by B—Q 2 and K—B 3 continuation on hand. He also could have played R—Q B 8, and his game was not endangered. The text play is a grave oversight.

(i) The sacrifice is sound and forces a win for White.

(k) R—Kt 8 or R—B 4 was hardly any better. White's answer would have been P—R 6, R—R 7, and Queening of the Pawn.

(l) Which causes Black to surrender. If P—R 5, then K B 5 and K x Kt P, otherwise B x P and B—Kt 4 brings about a similar result.

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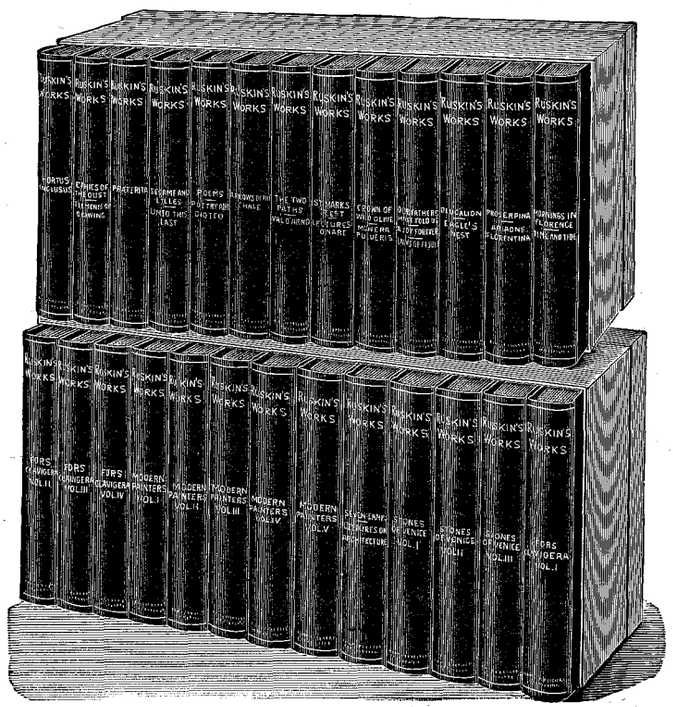

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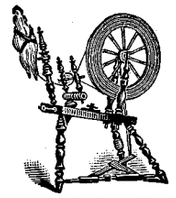

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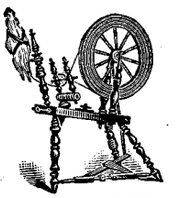

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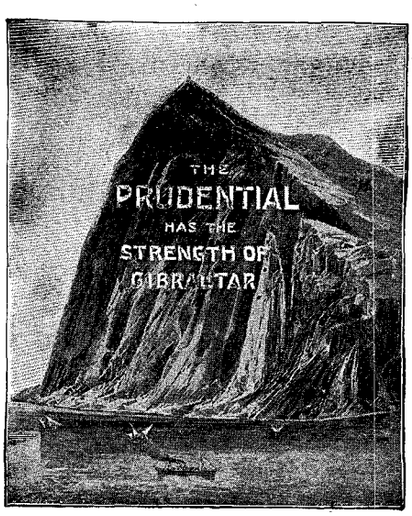

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